7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the results of data analysis of the teachers’ perspectives on the skills that IETs should have. These skills are presented as competency standards and best practices in teaching EFL in Indonesian primary and secondary schools. They are described with respect to the teachers’ basic notions of what IETs must be able to do and what IETs are expected to do in teaching EFL.

The teachers’ perspectives in this chapter reveal two major sets of skills for IETs. The first is the essential set of English skills, and the second is the technical set of planning, instructing, and assessing skills.

As shown in Table 7.1, the essential set includes the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, with an emphasis on the oral-aural skills, language modelling, and language maintenance. Within the technical set, the instructing skill set has the most contents compared to the planning and assessing skill sets. The instructing skill set has two areas, namely general English instruction, and specific instruction of the four English macro-skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The components of the essential and technical sets are further categorised as themes and sub-themes.

An analytical discussion of the themes of teacher skills addressing the research questions, particularly subsidiary questions 4, 5, and 6, is integrated into the conclusion of the chapter.

7.2 Themes and Sub-themes

The analysis of the teachers’ perspectives yielded a number of emergent recurring themes. Specifically, four themes (i.e. categories) were found at the initial data analysis. Subsequent analysis identified sub-themes of each of these themes.
Table 7.1 Themes and sub-themes of the teachers’ perspectives on teacher skills

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7.2.1 English Language Proficiency

7.2.1.1 Skills and Components of English

IETs’ proficiency in the *macro-* and *micro-skills* and/or the *components* of English was described by all the teachers as vital. They referred to listening, speaking, reading, and writing as the macro-skills, each with its own micro-skills (e.g. aspects of pronunciation are the micro-skills for speaking). They also referred to English grammar (structure) and vocabulary, in particular, as the components of English. The teachers had two main arguments.

First, *philosophically*, they viewed the four skills as the essentials of English and a unit.
In learning English, the four skills are essential. They are four in one, and one in four. We can’t learn a language completely without mastering the four skills. (Lexy*)

According to Lexy, to learn English is to learn all the skills, which includes the components. Consequently, to IETs this means to teach English is to teach all the skills, including the components.

Second, the teachers said that, logically, one should be reasonably good at something before he or she can teach it to other people.

If the students should speak English…and…writing [write] well, [have the] four skills, and…component[s] of English, structure and [or] grammar, [and] vocabulary, [then] English teachers should master these. If the English teacher does not master these…what [would] the teacher…transfer to the students? (Linda)

### 7.2.1.2 Oral-aural English

IETs should be proficient specifically in the macro-skills of speaking and listening, including the micro-skills of pronunciation, conversation, and comprehension. Teachers’ failure to develop these skills in themselves has contributed to a lack of proficiency in many students.

They (students) have learned English for…years…but…they couldn’t speak English well...because...they (teachers) teach English but they use Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom. (Andi)

Andi criticised those IETs who rarely use English to teach their classes when they are expected to use it. Some IETs use Indonesian only occasionally, e.g. when explaining a grammar item, but many others use Indonesian all or almost all the time. This was seen as unfortunate for students who, as a result, have limited or no chance to be exposed to spoken English. The teachers offered two reasons.

First, many students nowadays want to hear their English teacher speak English.

The teacher [should] always speak English inside or outside the class because many students [would] like to listen more...how to speak English. (Ati)

If students know how important it is to practice English with their teacher or with each other, then IETs must be aware of and fulfil the expectation. Therefore:

In their teaching they (IETs) [should] speak English 50 per cent of the time or most of the time. (Hamid)
Many of the teachers agreed with this statement. They considered it reasonable that IETs should speak English at least 50 per cent of the time when teaching. They also thought that, for various reasons, a 100 per cent use of English would be unrealistic.

Second, IETs' are their students' EL learning models.

They (IETs) have to be good model[s] for the students...in terms of how to speak English well...speak English fluently, and [in terms of] pronunciation and grammar. (Wahid)

IETs are in a position to set a good example for students about how to use English when they use it as a media of instruction and interaction. Given such a position, IETs should not expect students to initiate the creation of an English-speaking atmosphere.

Ideally, when teachers and students meet, the target language atmosphere should be created by teachers...because they are the model. (Chaya*).

IETs should ensure that when they meet students, they should initiate and maintain the interaction in English. In my own experience, Indonesian students are quite enthusiastic about interacting in English with teachers who take the initiative.

Nevertheless, the teachers understood that some students still expect IETs to use their first language.

For us to speak English like a native speaker, it’s ideal but really hard to realise.... Students often ask me to speak Indonesian…I often ask them to pretend that I was a white person, and greet me with “Hi”, “Hello”, “Good morning”, and “Good afternoon” [L]. (Chaya**)

Despite such student attitudes, the teachers believed that IETs must remain committed to exposing their students to an active use of English. Such exposure is important for improving their students’ English proficiency.

7.2.1.3 English Proficiency Maintenance

IETs should practice and use English in and beyond the classrooms in order to maintain their English. In general, as articulated by Alam, most IETs have the same problem:

There is no chance to speak English. Most of them [are] faced with the students only and there is no, the others...the people from other countr[ies] ** [with whom] the teacher really use English.

Many IETs are challenged, ironically, with the opportunity to use and maintain their spoken English. Apart from using English—if they do—when teaching or communicating with
colleagues, they do not speak English, let alone with native speakers, as much as they should in order to maintain it. Therefore, IETs should:

…always keep in touch with English...use English at home as actively as possible.
(Risa)

What Risa had in mind was that IETs must maintain their English in various ways and not restrict themselves to using it only at work. Besides with their students and colleagues, they could speak English with their friends and family members. They could surround themselves with English songs, films, radio or TV shows, news, and books. IETs could also broaden their network with people around the world:

Having an international networking is so important. Otherwise, the teachers will trap himself [or] herself in the local things….Good networking…will bring...many good effects to their students. (Amat)

Networking is about developing and maintaining connections with people with the same interests, who are committed to advancing the profession. For IETs, the people might be EL teachers and ELT experts in the other parts of Indonesia and the world. Professional organisations, conferences, and ELT/TESOL blogs, web sites, or social networking groups on the World Wide Web were mentioned by the teachers as potential networking sites for IETs.

In sum, this section has revealed the teachers’ perspectives on the essential set of English skills, the foundation skills IETs are required to develop and maintain in order to carry out their professional duties. If IETs are to succeed in the three main stages of ELT, namely planning, instructing, and assessing, then they must first of all be proficient in English. The next section describes the first stage of the technical set of IET skills, namely, planning.

7.2.2 Planning Skills

According to the teachers, planning skills are part of IETs’ professional competencies in making preparations and arrangements for their own teaching and students’ learning of English. In the current educational reforms in Indonesia, teachers are involved in two major planning activities. I describe the first one as curricular planning which refers to the development of a school’s KTSP including the syllabi for all the subjects, annual plans, and
semester plans. The second one is lesson planning which refers to the development of a plan for a particular lesson. Most of the teachers talked about lesson planning and the rest referred to curricular planning or a mix of both. The importance of planning was emphasised by the teachers for two main reasons.

First, planning means good preparation.

(Our task) is to prepare ourselves before teaching, make the lesson plan … master the materials, and transfer [knowledge and skills] to our students … If we’re not prepared, we wouldn’t achieve the targets. The lesson plan makes us aware of them. (Anna*)

In Anna’s opinion, planning is to do with describing what the teacher plans to do with the materials and the students during a teaching and learning process. It is how a teacher prepares himself or herself in order to enable the students to achieve the goals and objectives of the lesson and of the curriculum and syllabus.

The second reason relates to teacher accountability:

[If] the supervisor…come[s] to the class, they…ask...“Where is your RPP, unit lesson, journal…class roll…yearly and semester programs?”...”What material do you want to teach?”...”How many hours do you present…this material?”...They sit behind the classroom. Sometimes after that they give us the suggestion…feedback. (Arie**)”

Arie was referring to the official Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran (RPP) [Instructional Implementation Plan] or lesson plan. It is one of the documents in any teacher’s Perangkat Guru [Teacher’s Document Kit] which consists of yearly and semester programs, school curriculum, syllabus, lesson plans, etc. Lesson plan preparation is every teacher’s obligation. A school supervisor or principal usually chooses randomly which teacher’s lesson he or she will sit in. None of the teachers know whose lesson is to be watched on a given day, so they must have the lesson plan available for the inspector to see.

7.2.2.1. Individual vs. Collective Planning

IETs should have the skill of making plans collectively in addition to making plans individually. This is an important point because unlike in the past where planning was mainly a teacher’s individual activity, now it can be done as collective work involving groups of teachers.
This recent development is due to the introduction of KTSP, requiring all teachers in a school to collaborate to break down the national standards into curricular programs. IETs are expected to develop their lesson plans individually based on the school’s EL curricular programs in its KTSP. Nevertheless, IETs who teach at the same type of schools are often encouraged to plan their lesson plans together with their fellow MGMP members.

Our planning is our collective work from (with) MGMP because our books are the same….People in the MGMP [say] okay Zaki got [a certain] task….and then [we] work together…based on the purposes and…[plan] the method…the material…[time] allocation…assessment. (Zaki)

Apparently, IETs now have a new skill to learn, i.e. working collectively with their colleagues from the same type of school to develop both the curricular and lesson plans. This is a new development because before the current reform, curricular plans for EL were made by curriculum developers in Jakarta in the form of a national curriculum and its components (e.g. textbooks), and IETs only had to make their lesson plans.

7.2.2.2. Student Factors

In making their plans, it was stated that IETs should take their students’ backgrounds, characteristics, and needs into account.

a. Students’ Background and Characteristics

Two key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives on students’ background and characteristics.

First, IETs should consider students’ social-cultural and environmental factors.

They (IETs) should...consider...students’ cultural background...and also social [situation], and also...the condition of school maybe, environment[al] condition....For example in (here), we experienced many earthquakes, so maybe in planning...we should input...something related...[to] natural disaster...and also maybe for Islam, we can integrate like something that...[is] related with the religion. (Wini)

Wini believed that her students’ are still very much influenced by the traditional local culture and the majority religion in their daily lives. Additionally, the threats of potential earthquakes are constantly in the local people’s minds. By implication, plans for teaching EL
that put these aspects into consideration would make for relevant EL lessons that are socially- and culturally-sensitive, contextual, and hopefully interesting.

Second, IETs should consider students’ levels of English and ability when planning their lessons. In reference to a regular class and a bilingual class, both year 10, that he was teaching, Amat remarked:

Right now I’m teaching two different classes in grade 10, but I’m applying different lesson plans because the two classes...have different composition[s] in their level of mastery in English....The bilingual class...have very good basic of English already, so...I cannot just use...normal lesson plan[s]...applied by other teachers here. [They are] not like the regular class....They need to experience different things in their learning process.

Even though the two classes are the same grade, the materials that Amat planned for the regular class were less challenging than those planned for the bilingual class. He also used the knowledge of his students’ level of English to interpret and elaborate the curriculum into lesson plans:

In some classes that I’m teaching...the curriculum just requires students to know...about A-B-C, but in fact the students have known...A-B-C-D-E-F-G-H....[So] I’ve got to modify whatever I’m doing, the material, everything...because they deserve to know...learn in their best. (Amat)

Besides looking at what materials the curriculum dictated him to teach, Amat also planned his lessons based on his students’ current level of English in relation to the materials. The other teachers reported a similar approach, envisaging their students in terms of their general level of ability:

First I consider about my students...how will my students be tomorrow...low ability, high ability class....Different lesson plan. (Lisda)

Students may be in the same year, but if one class is ‘low ability’ and the other ‘high ability’, then IETs should prepare different lesson plans to teach the two groups.

Other teachers, however, use students’ school programs as an indication of their general level of ability.

When I have to teach Accounting students, and I don’t feel ready...I study hard the night before. With the Arts students...things are easy...[but] to teach my Accounting students I know they will ask many questions about my materials. (Asni)

I imagine the students and average their ability, then I think about the strategies and methods appropriate to them....General methods and materials could be the same, but strategies must be specific depending on actual teaching activities....Science
students might need just two weeks to complete one topic, others classes need four
weeks. (Ani)

Certain groups of students such as Asni’s Accounting SMK students and Ani’s SMA
Science students are believed to have higher English ability than those in other programs.
They could be hard or easy to teach, which could affect IET's lesson planning.

b. Student Needs

Students have different needs in learning that IETs should accommodate in their lesson
plans. Three key points stood out here.

First, IETs should consider students’ long term needs.

The material should match with the department that the students are studying. For
example, when I’m teaching tourism students, the material must match with the
student need. The need[s that are] the need of [the] user[s]. (Anton)

At Anton’s SMK, students are prepared to enter the job market after graduation. IETs
in Anton’s school must ensure that what they plan to teach today matches what their
students would need in terms of English skills in future employment.

Second, IETs should consider students’ short term needs. One of these is UAN, in
which English is one of the major four subjects tested.

I’m teaching the third class (year 12 students)....We have to focus on their final
examination. So that’s our main focus now. At least we help the students. That’s
what we do for the third class. (Ardi)

Ardi thought that students need their EL teachers’ help to prepare for UAN. The lesson
plans for regular lessons should incorporate the so-called ‘tips and tricks’ to help students
succeed in the examinations.

7.2.2.3 Teaching and Learning Context

When planning a lesson, IETs should take into account the teaching and learning context.
This constitutes a cover term for two factors.

First, IETs should consider the availability of teaching and learning aids. These include
language laboratories or modern equipment for teaching and learning purposes, including
audio and/or video players, microphones, loudspeakers, and, in recent years, desktop or
laptop computers, liquid crystal display (LCD) projectors, and air conditioners. Some of these
modern aids are quite expensive by Indonesian standards and many schools cannot afford them. However, thanks to increased funding from the government, school committees, and donations, many schools have been able to procure them. Nonetheless, even if schools have all the aids they need, teachers may still have problems caused by power outages, which are quite common in Indonesia nowadays.

Once I planned to use the LCD, but when we [I] came to the class, there was no electricity (L), and everything changed....It was also my fault because I didn’t check these….So we must have a Plan B, or Plan C, or Plan D [L]. (Hamid)

In Hamid’s experience, IETs must be prepared for all eventualities with regard to the lack of facilities or such an emergency situation. Their plans should incorporate contingencies and alternatives.

Second, IETs should put class sizes into consideration. Excluding the prestigious schools where student numbers are limited to 15 per class, most Indonesian schools have 40–50, sometimes even more, students in a class.

I imagine the topic, skills, materials, and teaching methods or techniques in my lesson plans, and I also think about [the] numbers of students—the class is big or a small class. (Riani)

A part of IETs’ planning skills is the ability to enable students to use English actively in a large class. Thus, when IETs want to try a certain teaching method, they should be aware that it might be applicable to small classes only and need to be adjusted to suit larger classes.

7.2.2.4 Lesson Goals

IETs should be able to set the goals for the lessons they plan. The goals should cover two major aspects.

First, IETs should aim for students’ mastery of the materials. They should ensure that students do not go home “empty-handed”.

Based on a lesson plan…we should know what students would be able to know, what they should be able to do, what they can do….Anything they could take home. (Laili)

IETs should plan to enable their students to gain knowledge and/or skills from a lesson. Jefri concurred by saying that IETs should:
….say [state] the purpose, students’ level, topics, and indicators [of] performance….Before we come in to the class, we have decided, I should teach this, this topic, and…the students at the end of class will understand this. (Jefri)

IETs are responsible for making decisions regarding the various aspects of teaching-learning activities that are aimed at ensuring students’ mastery of the lesson. This view was supported by the other teachers.

I hope that my student can understand what I’m going to teach, and then the plan I make of course start from (is based on the) syllabus—what we have make [made], what the school make [made]. And then I hope that my student know…more than 80 per cent. (Tati)

Tati planned her lessons by considering all the important aspects, from the objectives, which are elaborated from the syllabus, to the assessment of students’ learning. On student mastery, both Jefri and Tati emphasised this, but Tati expected her students to achieve between 70 and 80 per cent at the end of the lesson.

Second, IETs should keep in mind that their ultimate goal is students’ English speaking skills.

In planning my lesson, I always think about what is the most urgent for me to teach ….The most urgent…is speaking…the function of language is for communication. We want to see students speak English, for communication. (Rina)

Learning English is learning how to use it for communication. Because speaking is the most observable form of communication, it should be IETs’ ultimate goal.

### 7.2.2.5 Lesson Indicators/Standards

IETs should make sure that their lesson plans refer to some indicators or standards of achievement called indicators or criteria of performance and student competency standards.

In terms of planning, we have to say...[the] indicators...[of] performance...before [we] come into the class, we have a kind of * [idea that] I should teach this...topic. (Andri)

Actually the Government or the Dinas Pendidikan have [has] give[n] us...[the students’] standards [of] competencies. We apply these so the teacher[s] are free to find the material that they are going to teach...what book or what media....Then (we)...make...three or four indicators for each standard of competency. (Tita**)

These statements reflect the teachers’ awareness of the implementation of KBK. Introduced in 2004 to improve the 1994 National Curriculum and developed through the
KBK expects subject teachers to develop the indicators of achievement for every lesson they plan based on each of the Standar Kompetensi ‘Standard of Competency’ and Kompetensi Dasar ‘Basic Competency’.

7.2.2.6 Time and Duration

Time and duration are among the things that IETs should take into serious consideration when planning their lessons:

In planning, they (IETs) should...consider about the time...allocated for our teaching...time allocation. (Wini)

Two things are of importance here. First, IETs should be aware of time allocation. This is to do with the distribution of the lessons over a semester or the whole year.

In one semester there are maybe twenty meetings. So we have to know about the effective time, how many effective times, for example, [and] Ramadan or the fasting month. (Arie)

The time allocation [is important]...whether the materials...can be taught within the allocated time....[T]here are holidays and activities. So if our curricular obligation is to teach eight times, then time restrictions might force us to teach just five times. (Chaya)

There are many things that IETs need to factor in their yearly or semester plans, with the national and/or religious holidays and school activities being among them.

Second, IETs should ensure that, among other things, the materials can be taught within the length of a lesson on a particular day or a series of lessons over the period of several weeks.

The materials (that we plan to teach) need to match the time available to teach them....We need to know how many hours will be spent for teaching them. (Mega)

For other teachers, these considerations should also take into account the time of day in which to teach a certain material or skill area.

In the afternoon, I cannot teach too much (many) materials, and I have to be very relaxed....The activity should be relax[ing] for the students. I can’t give...listening, in the afternoon [as] it’s difficult to do, because students are tired. (Lisda)

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1 Professor of ELT, English Department, UM.
Apparently, there are certain times during the day considered suitable for teaching a certain skill or material. IETs have to teach challenging materials at a time when students are not tired, they should plan to teach them as enjoyably as possible for students.

### 7.2.2.7 Teaching and Learning Resources

IETs should make decisions about teaching and learning resources. “Resources” is used here as an umbrella term for what the teachers referred to as materials, media, facilities, textbooks, sources, and books, and may be tangible and intangible. The teachers’ perspectives are in two clusters of opinions.

In the first cluster are the views that IETs should be competent in accessing and using resources for teaching and learning. Two key points emerged here.

First, IETs should be competent in using traditional print materials such as textbooks, which they categorised here as media, in addition to the other teaching and learning resources and facilities.

We have to make [a] plan that sometimes we have...[to] use let’s say textbook and sometimes we only, we can...teach what is in the text book, because if we want to create a new materials, we make our own, sometimes it’s very difficult to apply the material. (Ardi)

We have to design our activity first and also our...media for the teaching. I have to buy many books, not only one book, since I need material[s] from many source[s]. (Eva)

Ardi and Eva are reliant on textbook materials for their teaching activities. Ardi’s point of view, in particular, is nonetheless understandable as he was teaching mostly year 12 students when he was interviewed. He might not see an option to “experiment” much with resources other than textbooks for his final year students’ preparation for the grammatically-obsessed national examinations. Another explanation might be Ardi’s unfamiliarity with sources other than textbooks, and this might apply to Eva as well.

Second, IETs should use textbooks but they must not be over-reliant on them.

Many teachers are trapped by textbook, textbook, and textbook...especially [because] the government drops books to school[s]...Teachers just [say] “Okay, we can just use these book[s]”....Many teachers are not aware that [to teach] the students [they] can use many resources....So I try to develop the material[s] that can be [used]. (Amat)
IETs should be able to create and/or vary their media to make their lessons more interesting. Amat's statement was supported by other teachers here who believed IETs should embrace modern technology. IT/ICT was often mentioned as a resource for accessing various kinds of materials other than just those in textbooks.

We have to find out teaching sources not only textbook but also find out from many sources like in [on the] Internet, and also other resources. (Andi)

I think teachers...should be good at using ICT. It makes their job easier and students are also more interested....It depends on the teachers...whether or not they will adjust their materials with the teaching media. Sometimes [without ICT], we can only teach in an ordinary way. (Ismi*)

To focus on Ismi's statement, it was implied that while many IETs nowadays are familiar with IT/ICT and are using it in teaching, many others are still not. This is despite the fact that IT/ICT products and services are increasingly becoming commonplace in Indonesia. The exact figure of IETs with poor IT/ICT skills is not known, nevertheless, the pattern can be inferred. It could include those IETs who are nearing retirement (senior teachers or those around the ages of 50–55) and who might have been introduced to IT/ICT in their later life or career. They might also have difficulties in catching up what they are lacking. They are likely to rely on other people to help them use such things as an LCD projector, an IT/ICT product available in many schools nowadays. Due to this problem, the use of teaching and learning media other than textbooks, including but not limited to IT/ICT, might be too much to be desired of all IETs. Nevertheless, the teachers have reasons to believe that all IETs should consider including them in their lesson plans.

In the second cluster are views that IETs should determine the suitability and level of the materials for their students. Two key points emerged from this cluster.

First, IETs should be able to determine the time or duration available and the instructional strategies to be employed.

In planning my lessons I decide whether the materials would fit the time frame, how many hours it will take to teach them, and what strategies we will use. (Mega)

IETs should be able to plan the use of the teaching materials efficiently and effectively. They should consider the time constraints and ensure that their strategies result in students' comprehension and proficiency.
Second, IETs should be able to determine that the topic of the materials is suitable for the students in terms of their ability to learn the materials and their levels of English.

I need to know what I want and then how I’m going to get it and then in what grade [the students are]. (Ayu)

Ayu, a primary madrasah teacher, is referring to her mixed ability classes. Her emphasis on her students’ grade in terms of the suitability of materials speaks volumes about relevant aspects such as students’ age, linguistic and psychological development, learning ability, and curricular expectations, among other things.

The same approach to using materials was applied by the teachers who taught at higher levels of schooling where students of the same level may be in different classes and/or study program.

The materials we use are usually developed (integrated) into the instructional strategies. So the same materials could be taught differently in different classes [at the same level]...[D]ifferent classes or programs (means different materials and methods). (Ani*)

Students as a class should be the teachers’ point of reference when planning to teach the materials. Lesson plans for two parallel classes should be different in spite of the classes being at the same level.

In summary, I have presented here the teachers’ perspectives on planning the resources for the whilst-teaching segment of a lesson plan. They generally believed that this part of the lesson planning requires IETs’ skills in considering the teaching and learning media and suitability of the materials.

7.2.2.8 Teaching Methodology

In planning their lessons, IETs should take into account the teaching methodology that they will use. The teachers’ perspectives in this regard are in four clusters.

In the first cluster are the perspectives on the suitability of IETs’ methodology. The teachers used the terms ELT techniques, strategies, and methods to refer to methodology. Two key points stood out in this cluster.

First, IETs’ methodology should be chosen with the students in mind:

Every time we teach the same method [for] the same subject...[or] we have a new method, we have to learn the students first, and sometimes we change our methods
to teach [them]….Class A have different ability with [from] class B, so we have to use different method[s], too. (Vina)

IETs should be able choose suitable ELT methodology for the specific student or class of students that they plan to teach.

Second, IETs should plan to use a certain ELT methodology that is suitable for the materials.

[We should] make the...method suitable with the material that we want to explain.
So we should choose the right method. (Alam)

There are certain ways to teach the various ELT materials, meaning that certain materials should only be taught in a certain way, rather than in another way or a combination of ways.

Other teachers argued that IETs’ choice of methodology may be responsible for students’ success or failure in comprehending the materials.

I have to be aware [if] there’s something wrong. Maybe the method…is too difficult. (Alim)

A review of the method may be necessary in addressing the problem of students’ lack of comprehension. As can be inferred from all the perspectives on lesson planning in this chapter, the method is only a means to an end, which is student comprehension and, ultimately, proficiency in English.

In the second cluster are the perspectives on considering students’ interests. When IETs choose to use a certain ELT methodology, they should make sure students’ interests in the lesson are maintained. The single key point here is presented in general and specific terms.

Generally, IETs should be able to plan a lesson that ensures the students’ enjoyment, interest, and ease of comprehension:

We should deliver the materials in an enjoyable way possible so that our students can learn without feeling like they are being taught....An English teacher is challenged to present the materials as interestingly as possible. (Lily**)

Specifically, IETs should use materials such as songs and games. For example, Ayu said that she always thinks:

…about how I can make the student[s] get interested in my topic....I think about whether I should use a song…games.
In the third cluster are perspectives on specific techniques in teaching. The key point is that the specific teaching technique IETs should use depends on the topic of the materials and, to some extent, on the age of students they are dealing with. The technique may also involve some of IETs’ artistic abilities:

Because I’m teaching English to young learners, you [I] should be able to…tell [a] story in such a way that it will make their [my] students catch the point. You should be able to…sing maybe. (Ayu)

A teacher should be a good artist...able to act….If [he’s] teaching about…[a] story and [then] he has to be a good story teller….If he[’s] teaching about…how to cook food…[then] he has to be a good cook. (Arief)

These are what I refer to as “IETs' technical versatility”. It implies that materials should be taught in different ways. To accomplish this task effectively, IETs should use a certain ELT technique each time they teach a certain type of material. To be versatile means that IETs should at times be a story teller, an actor, a singer, and even a cook. IETs should play other roles depending on the materials they teach.

In the fourth cluster are the teachers’ perspectives on the classroom activities that IETs should plan for their lessons. Four key points emerged here.

First, classroom activities should be designed to make sure students keep practising their English. This was articulated mainly by SMK teachers such as Wawan:

I prepare the student[s]...to be capable workers, so....I don’t want to... teach something useless. I use [the] method here learning by doing. I give the student task and the task is useful in the field...If I teach greeting ...I give the student the material [about] self introduction and...self introduction [is] useful for new [job] application.

Teaching students who are expected to enter the job market when they graduate, the SMK teachers wanted their students to acquire productive English skills based on and oriented to real-life use.

Second, IETs should ensure that all students learn English in a way that encourages cognitive processes.

I give them...[a] crossword [puzzle] or...a kind of hidden material, and ask them to guess....Or I ask the students to...explain something that is not explained first. (Marni)
One of the advantages of cognitive processes such as guessing or predicting is that students have the opportunity to think in English, which may encourage them to think analytically and critically.

Third, in planning the activities, IETS should make sure that the chosen activities are suitable for the students or classes. Teachers should be creative in teaching…[and] adjust their teaching strategies with the class situation. Classes vary in many things…so we should find the strategies suitable for our students. (Yola*)

As most IETs’ teach primary and high school students, they should understand that a method that works for children may not be suitable for teenagers or vice versa.

Finally, IETs should ensure that they have the skills to design engaging classroom activities.

We must have the skill so that we can make hard materials easier to learn. We must be more creative and make use of the latest methods.…We must not be ICT illiterate. (Ellie*)

This may be challenging for some IETs because of a lack of materials and teacher creativity. For IETs’, creativity is particularly required when they have to deal with slow learners in their classes.

We need to know the methods for our slow learners. What I have applied was a grouping method. It involves putting slow and fast learners into groups so that the slow learners can be assisted in their learning. (Lily*)

Lily employed mixed-ability grouping to ensure that the slow learners in big classes of 40 to 50 get assistance from better learners during group activities.

**7.2.2.9 Assessment**

An important part of an IET’s lesson plan is assessment. When IETs make a lesson plan, they should include their assessment in it. The teachers often spoke of assessment in the same way as evaluation and used them interchangeably. Most of the teachers referred to tests and examinations as forms of assessment as well as evaluation. More of these will be described in section 7.2.4.
The teachers’ perspectives in this section share the notion that assessment, and evaluation for that matter, is an integral part of teaching. It comes at the end of instruction which is based on planning.

We make a lesson plan...After that we...run our...lesson, and...make (use) a kind of a quiz, assessing...to know whether the student[s] understand...the lesson. (Linda)

I have to make sure that my objectives can be reached...So I have to set the instruments to assess my students.....It happens in every meeting...not only a test...[but] also an observation.....It is stated in our lesson plan...that...you [should] have this kind of indicator...[or] objective....The assessment is part of the lesson plan. (Adi)

Assessment is described here as IETs’ way of judging whether their lesson goals and objectives have been reached. It can be done as a quiz at the end of each lesson or a test at the end of a school term, a year, or a level of education. IETs should use an instrument of assessment which applies a minimum score or criterion of achievement.

In summary, this section has presented the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ planning skills. The next section presents their perspectives on IETs’ instructing skills.

7.2.3 Instructing Skills

IETs’ instructing skills is made up of ten sub-themes. The first six sub-themes are general instructing skills labelled according to the aspects of English teaching and learning they are expected to focus on. I refer to these aspects collectively as the six A’s: assistance, application, ability, affection, autonomy, and awareness. The remaining four sub-themes are specific instructing skills relating to the English macro skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

7.2.3.1 Focus on “Assistance”

IETs are expected to focus on “assisting” students in learning English. They can focus on this aspect in seven ways.

First, IETs should be able to tailor their teaching to students’ learning. The teachers emphasised the importance of adapting their teaching to students’ ability and students’ levels of understanding.
I adapt [my lessons] to the condition of the class….Not all classes have excellent students….Some are good at following the lesson…in English. Others might be apathetic or uninterested….I must be ready with an “instant method” to keep them motivated. (Yola*)

Second, IETs must ensure that their method of teaching is easy to understand, whether or not they use English as a medium of instruction. They need to simplify their English and monitor their students’ comprehension all the time. To simplify English basically means that IETs should only use English that is at the students’ level. Monitoring students’ comprehension is beneficial in two ways: IETs can measure their own language use and, at the same time, provide assistance to students who need help. The reason for this is that:

In Indonesia, English is truly a foreign language….Even English teachers don’t speak English all the time, and in some schools they teach in students’ mother tongue. Many of our students find it funny or confusing to use English. So we use 50% English [and] 50% Indonesian. If you teach structure and you use English, students wouldn’t understand you. (Tita**)

Third, IETs must be able to organise their students’ learning in the classroom. They need to do this through planning, conditioning, chunking the materials, and presenting materials in order of difficulty over a certain period of time or a course term. The main points from the teachers’ perspectives are that: (1) students prefer less materials; (2) materials will be repeated at certain times during the period of a course—so there is no point in teaching students too many things at the same time; and (3) students should be taught step by step with graded materials. The key words here are students’ needs:

We need to know what our students are like. Usually it is hard to change the whole teaching programs in the curriculum to suit out students, but we can rearrange or reorganise them…not…all of them, but we can make changes to suit our students’ needs. (Diana*)

Fourth, IETs must minimise teacher-centred classroom activities. The reason is that EFL teaching has always been criticised for being dominated by teachers at the expense of students’ learning. Therefore, IETs must have skills in creating a student-centred learning (SCL) atmosphere in the classroom. SCL can be created in many ways, and one of these is by getting students to work in pairs or groups.

Our instruction is still teacher-centred, even though we are encouraged to be student-centred….In our classes students should not just sit in rows. They need to work in a circle or a group…before we teach them. We don’t teach them everything; we let them do the activities. Our students do not yet have this capability. (Ellie*)
Fifth, IETs must have and use their artistic abilities, particularly acting, drawing, and singing in teaching. Teaching was even considered by the teachers as ‘acting’ because there are certain things during a lesson that IETs should act out. It may also involve drawing because this could make explaining easier. IETs’ ability to sing or use songs may also make their lessons varied, fun, and realistic, which, in turn could make students interested and motivated.

A teacher should be a good artist...able to act....If [he’s] teaching about...[a] story, he has to be a good story teller....If he’s teaching about...how to cook food...he has to be a good cook. (Arief)

Sixth, IETs must ensure that students feel less anxious about learning English. The teachers believed that when students are less anxious, they would find learning enjoyable and thus learn better.

How a teacher approaches their students is important. Sometimes students are afraid of asking questions...because the teacher is strict. Students should not hesitate to ask questions....Teachers and students [should] have a better rapport. (Tiro*)

Finally, IETs should be able to communicate effectively with students by maximising verbal communication in the target language or students’ shared language(s), and using non-verbal forms of communication.

7.2.3.2 Focus on “Application”

“Application” is how I refer to the teachers’ perspectives on ELT approaches, methods, and techniques. By focusing on “application”, IETs are expected to do five important things during the lesson.

First, IETs must have classroom management skills. The teachers described this as their ability to deal with students’ behaviour or discipline problems in the classroom. In most classroom settings, the pattern was identified as being similar: some of the students with disruptive behaviour and teachers trying to cope with it. For example, controlling primary school children’s classroom behaviour can be more challenging than preparing or teaching the materials.

It’s easier to manage the material than to manage the classroom....Sometimes...the students are noisy...forty of them—playing soccer in the classroom, climbing up and down the tables.... So...if you can’t control the lesson, you’re finished. (Lita*)
At a higher level of education, IETs have more challenging problems. For example, in **SMKs**, where most of students are males:

They would only listen to you if you raise your voice….Even if you [do], it doesn’t mean the problem ends there. Your may be fine inside the classroom or school afterwards, but you must be careful outside. Some of our students hang out with thugs. (Vina*)

According to Vina, what begins as a classroom management issue in schools such as hers could lead to more serious problems outside the school. Thus, IETs must have or develop skills in this area to prevent such problems from occurring, or solve them if they do occur.

Second, IETs should use suitable approaches and methods in teaching. They need to make sure that their teaching or material-delivery methods, techniques, and aids are decided by considering their suitability with students’ levels of English, abilities, characteristics, and study areas.

We can’t…just apply [one] teaching strategy for the whole students. We have to see what’s going on in class, what…particular students need in the class, in the subject. We can apply the same material for three classes, but [we need to do it] with in different method[s], with the different approach[es]. (Amat)

Third, by using suitable approaches and methods, IETs should also ensure that students understand the materials taught and are able to do what is expected of them.

Teachers not only teach the four skills but also make the students able to use them. The students not only learn English, but also use English. So, it is not based on form, but on the use of English. (Amir)

Fourth, IETs must follow a certain procedure in teaching. The process begins with opening activities whereby IETs make sure students are ready to learn. This is followed by the delivery of the content and is ended with closing activities.

I always start with [the] vocabulary, because most of them lack of [the] vocabulary. Before I start the class, I refresh them…by asking [about] some vocabulary or asking [about] the last lesson. (Vina)

Finally, IETs should keep updating their teaching techniques:

They [IETs] have to update their techniques, because we know that there are many techniques that are updating [changing] day to day, so that at least language teacher should master them in order to develop [and] improve their ability. (Arief)
Arief was aware that by improving their teaching techniques, IETs can make their lessons more effective and interesting especially for students with a low motivation to learn English.

7.2.3.3 Focus on “Ability”

Focus on “ability” is used here to describe IETs’ skills in enabling their students to become successful English learners. This is done in three ways.

First, IETs should create as much opportunity as possible for students to speak English. They need to focus on the maximum production of English by emphasising English use, fluency over accuracy, and speaking and conversation activities. Students should become part of a larger English language speaking community.

Teachers are facilitators….They…create [the] atmosphere to [which allows] the students to make [it a] habit in [to] speaking [English]….When they are outside they [should] speak [English]…[At] firstly they are shy…but after getting motivation from their teachers, they are brave [confident] to speak English. (Zaki)

To achieve this, IETs should model the use of English by making it their habit to use or practise using English actively in and out of school. Depending on students’ level of English, they should spend at least 50% of the time speaking English to their students. This way they can improve their own English and demonstrate to students how English is used.

Second, IETs should situate students’ learning within a suitable real-life context.

The material should relate to students’ real environment, and not just to what they see in books. So if the material is about a hat, then IETs should get a hat to show the students. The meaning is close to students’ environment. (Yaya*)

They should focus on developing language skills, teaching materials that students are likely to use in real life, adapting teaching classroom situations and students’ motivation, and being flexible and prepared to make on-the-spot changes. Contextualising learning would improve students’ motivation to learn English, which is not always a popular subject among many students.

Third, students should be involved in classroom activities in which English is used.

They say, “Involve me and I understand. Tell me and I forget.” I think the “Involve and I understand” [part] is the most important. Involve students as much as possible….If you study a language and you don’t use the language, it is useless, because they never have the experience. (Hamid)
Thus, IETs should design activities that facilitate students’ involvement. They can do this by working or doing things with students, providing students with the time they need, and making sure students are engaged in the process and improve their English skills.

7.2.3.4 Focus on “Affection”

The term “affection” is used in this context to describe students’ feeling of fondness or liking of the subject or the learning process stimulated through the so-called ‘fun’ activities in the classroom. Students are stimulated through these activities in order to keep them interested and motivated to learn English.

The teachers saw students’ interest and motivation as essential. English is still considered by many students as a difficult language to learn, so it is pointless to teach them without paying attention to whether or not they are interested and/or motivated to learn it.

Most of the students in this high school have below average English. Just look at their average English scores obtained from the national final (UAN) examinations for junior high schools. To teach such students our goal is not to make them excellent speakers of English, but, first of all, to make them interested in learning English and keep them motivated as much as possible. (Tita*)

We need to have a good sense of humour and be able to make their class a fun place to learn a language. (Neni)

Such a class can be created when IETs entertain their students by using games, musical instruments, and creative activities to make their lessons enjoyable.

If the students get bored, we need to play something like a game, right?….Use an instrument like [a] guitar or an organ. So, [musical] instrument, not only about IT, but also art…make a picture…draw something. (Wini)

There seemed to be a general perception among the teachers that one of the good qualities expected of IETs is their being ‘fun’ as described above. They believed that students affectively favour ‘fun teachers’—IETs who keep their students interested and motivated in learning English by engaging them in “fun activities”.

7.2.3.5 Focus on “Autonomy”

“Autonomy” refers to the aspect of student learning where students are given as much opportunity as possible to learn independently. This is done in three ways.
First, homework assignment is a way to create an opportunity for students to learn independently. More and more teachers nowadays are using the Internet to serve this purpose. Therefore, IETs need to acquire and/or develop skill in designing Internet-based homework assignments.

Narrative reading materials are one kind of genres that I usually ask my students to do for their homework. I ask them to find them on the Internet, and they often find very good materials. This way we achieve the goals, such as identifying the characteristics of narrative texts. Students are already familiar with the structure and kinds of the texts, and homework allows me to enhance that knowledge in my students. (Mega**)

After teaching her students how to identify the narrative text, for example, Mega engaged them in an independent activity to find authentic narrative texts. The World Wide Web allows them access to these materials independently, thus enabling Mega to achieve the goal of her lesson.

Second, helping students think and learn inductively is a way of making them independent learners.

When I teach them [giving] direction, I don’t start by describing what it means by [giving] direction. Instead, I elicit their responses by asking questions about going places, for instance. This leads them to giving me words associated with direction, which I then write on the board. We use these words to talk about asking for or giving directions. (Anna*)

Anna believed that her students would acquire English automatically if instruction was approached inductively. Her elicitation technique and the subsequent inductive process were used to lead students to the main topic of her lesson. This engaged her students in inductive thinking and learning.

Third, by giving feedback or correction, especially by doing it directly, they could give students something that they would not forget.

Sometimes correction is [given] directly…direct correction…the correction that we give the students is impressive for them [sic]; [they] never forget [it] again after the meeting [lesson]. (Wawan)

The teachers believed that such explicit correction helps students learn more independently in the future.
7.2.3.6 Focus on “Awareness”

“Awareness” refers to the teachers’ perspectives on emphasising the development of students’ language learning awareness. This could be by way of showing students the benefits of learning English.

The teachers believed that it is important to show students the benefits of learning English. Many students lack this, and this is especially true of SMK students. Many of the SMK teachers said that their students often lack interest in studying English because they did not yet see its relevance to their future occupations.

My students…think they come to school just to learn how to sing, play the guitar, and dance, not to learn English, mathematics, Indonesian. (Ellie)

Make students aware of what it means to attend an economic vocational high school. I always motivate them, telling them how their skills are related to English, and how important English is when they want to enter the job market. (Linda*)

In summary, I have discussed six sub-themes of IETs’ instructing skills in relation to the importance of focusing on what I describe here as “assistance”, “application”, “ability”, “affection”, “autonomy”, and “awareness”. IETs are expected to acquire or develop and maintain general instructing competencies in these six aspects of teaching EFL to Indonesian students. In the next sections, I will describe the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ skills in teaching students the four major skills in English: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. They are presented here in terms of instructional goals, materials, and activities or methods.

7.2.3.7 Teach Listening Skills

a. Goals

The teachers’ perspectives on the objectives of teaching listening skills contain five key points.

First, students’ general comprehension is the main objective.

I usually focus on the comprehension, whether they comprehend what is [in] their listening or not by measuring or looking at the answer[s]. (Arief)

Second, students’ comprehension should go hand in hand with their response.
My focus is on ensuring students respond to the listening material given….If we get
them to listen and they don’t respond, it means they don’t get it. So I need my
students to understand my commands and respond. (Rina*)

Third, students’ comprehension and enjoyment are important. This can be achieved,
among other things, by using songs in the listening exercises:

When I teach listening…my focus [is that] the student can understand…get
something from what they listen…and also [for] enjoyment…I often give them [a]
song….They listen and enjoy it. They learn by enjoying the lesson. (Lisda)

Fourth, comprehension in classroom exercises would benefit final year students in
their preparation for UAN which focuses on accuracy rather than content.

Because they (my students) are all…the last grade…I have to repeat it once again, and usually the student will be able to
understand…they are listening to…the story they are listening to. (Alim)

Fifth, content rather than accuracy is important in such activities as listening-based
writing task, especially for children.

I don’t care whether they are right in writing but if they listen to what I say quite
well…when I say “Run” and they cross the picture of a student or a boy
running, then it’s correct. So I don’t care whether he can write run or not. (Ayu)

b. Materials

There are four key points regarding listening materials articulated by the teachers.

First, the sources of the listening materials can be the teacher’s own voice and/or
audio recordings.

In teaching listening, sometimes we use…my voice, and sometimes we use the tape
recorder. (Arie)

Sometimes I use media…[a] VCD or cassette….If the students still don’t
understand I have to repeat it once again, and usually the student will be able to
understand my pronunciation rather than the native speakers. (Marni)

Using their own voice, for some teachers, can be a good alternative in the absence or
lack of recorded listening materials. Some teachers, however, use this as a challenge for
them to improve the quality of their spoken English so that they can be well-understood by
their students.

I always try to develop my own ability to speak, too….I have to be able to be [speak
in] standard…correct English. (Felix)
Second, the teachers used listening exercises in their classes and integrated them with the other skills.

They are listening by doing it; it depends on the situation or...the material we teach. Sometimes...we can integrate this with speaking, reading, writing. (Tita)

Some of the teachers used authentic materials such as popular songs and song lyrics whose topics were relevant to the themes of the lesson.

I want my students to imitate the...songs to practice their pronunciation. But I don’t use the whole lesson for listening only....I integrate it with reading, writing, and pronunciation. (Ani*)

Other teachers used audio-visual materials such as television programs and recorded conversations for the same purpose.

I ask them to record about weather report from the BBC, Voice of America, or I will prepare by myself....I will ask many questions...[or]....After that I will give them question[s]...the question first, after that [is] the listening material. (Linda)

Third, listening exercises can be used to improve students’ pronunciation. In this case, listening is integrated with speaking.

I have to provide good model for them and...my focus [is that] they will be able to have a good pronunciation and fluency, and to comprehend their listening. So the listening is related with speaking. (Widya)

Fourth, listening materials can be taken from or inspired by those from standardised tests such as TOEIC².

I will give my students pictures of...Brad Pitt for example...I will say four sentences, A, B, C, D, [and] “Which [one] is...related to the picture?” And the second one...I say, “Are you busy?” “A. I am at home; B. Nothing; C. Good bye”. “Which expression is suitable with my question?” The students should give a good response]....[However I do] not just copy. Sometimes I make [them] by myself. (Linda)

There are many reasons for the teachers to use materials from standardised EL competency tests. One of them might be to familiarise the students with the types of listening comprehension questions in UAN.

We try to find the...listening [materials] in the final examination and we practice them. (Ardi)

This shows that there was a conscious effort to use such materials for the UAN preparation.

² Test of English for International Communication
c. Activities/Methods

Three key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives on the activities or methods in teaching listening skills.

First, classroom activities are the typical instructional activities or methods in teaching EL listening skills in Indonesia.

They (students) listen to the questions and choose the right answer. The focus is on training students with dialogues and monologues. (Ismi)

According to Ismi, the materials may be in the form of dialogues (e.g. conversations, film/video clips) or monologues (e.g. speeches, TV reports, songs, etc.) on various topics. The teacher plays the audio or video recording or reads the text aloud for students to listen, ensuring that the latter comprehend it as much as possible. Comprehension exercises ensue, and students are expected to answer the comprehension questions as accurately as possible.

My focus is that students respond to the listening material given…I need my students to understand my commands, and respond….If they don’t…I would use gestures, body movements, miming. (Rina*)

According to Rina, IETs need to be able to use gestures or physical movements to maximise students’ comprehension of the listening materials.

Second, there needs to be a maximisation of students’ comprehension by designing activities relating listening activities to other skills such as acting.

We have a kind of activity, understanding instruction. So we instruct the students to do something. They listen and do, listen and write, or...listen and acting. (Riani)

Third, listening activities/methods can be conducted with the use of a language laboratory.

Listening is about comprehension, so the classroom has to be quiet. We usually use the laboratory, which we sometimes fight to use as everyone wants to use it. If we can’t use the lab, I use the classroom. (Ismi*)

Ismi wants her students to engage in listening activities in an environment with the least disturbance. She prefers to use the language laboratory to achieve this purpose. The use of the language laboratory was mentioned previously by Amat, who uses it for teaching
his high school students listening skills using standardised tests such as TOEFL\(^3\) as materials.

### 7.2.3.8 Teach Speaking Skills

#### a. Goals

The teachers’ perspectives on the objectives of teaching speaking skills contain three key points.

First, it is important to focus on students’ production of English.

Speaking focuses on fluency, not grammar. (Tati)

IETs need to prioritise fluency and confidence in speaking, including pronunciation, over grammatical accuracy in English.

English is difficult for them (SMK students) so, the most important [thing]...is that the students are...brave to express their idea....It is very hard to make them brave...confident...to use English. (Tika)

Second, correction of students’ errors in speaking is secondary. Any correction of students’ grammatical errors during their speaking activities can be done after the activity or at the end of the lesson. Doing it otherwise may demotivate students.

If I prefer accuracy, it will discourage the students. I just let them say it fluently; whether they make mistakes...we discuss the mistakes after the lesson, after the speaking activity. (Riani)

Third, IETs should create as much opportunity as possible for students to speak and to be understood in English.

Our focus here [is on] speaking...even though maybe the grammar is not quite good....If their friends speak and they can understand, yeah (that’s good). The most important thing here is understanding from...[working] in pairs, [or] dialogue[s] (Arie**)

An emphasis on fluency as the objective has an implication for assessment. IETs’ tolerance of their students’ grammatical errors in the assessment of speaking is crucial to students’ learning.

They (my students) are still ten years old and English is not what they use in their daily lives...[So] if they have 80 percent of the language communicatively, they pass. (Ayu)

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\(^3\) Test of English as a Foreign Language
b. Materials

IETs need to use speaking materials that encourage a great amount of speaking opportunity and that are authentic and realistic. Two key points emerged in this section.

First, conversations or dialogues are the speaking materials often used by the teachers to teach their classes.

I give my students a conversation as an example…to memorise…and practise…with comprehension….They must [also] show the expression, which really matters. If the expression doesn’t show, I wonder if they really know what the words mean. (Chaya*)

One of the many conversation or dialogue topics in speaking classes is making an invitation.

Students have to be able to make a conversation where they invite someone. If they can invite…use the right sentences to express invitation it means…they are able to deliver the message. (Lisda)

Second, IETs should enable their students to practise English as realistically as possible. One way of doing this is by involving the optimum use of real objects, sometimes outside of the classroom.

For speaking, I usually ask my students to go out of the classroom…a practicum test on describing objects. So, outside I asked them “What objects can you see? Can you describe them to me? Can you describe the school building?” (Ani*)

The teachers’ ideas regarding the materials described here do not seem to reflect the variety of materials used by IETs. Further information about the materials may be inferred from the teachers’ comments about activities or methods.

c. Activities/Methods

The teachers’ perspectives contain three key points in regard to activities or methods of teaching speaking skills.

First, the teachers had general views about in-class activities and out-of-class activities. In-class activities should be designed and implemented to ensure that students have as much opportunity as possible to communicate with their interlocutors in the target language. They should be able to talk about what they have on their minds or be engaged in activities whose topics or formats have been predetermined by the teacher.
I focus on the ability to say something to express their mind, to tell us what they have seen...what they understand. Sometimes I use...role playing...games...storytelling. Usually I make brainstorm and they...discuss [it]. (Hamid)

In terms of out-of-class activities or methods, the teachers thought that it was important to allow their students to practise speaking English outside the confinement of the classroom and school. They could use such an opportunity to practise their English with native speakers—or English-speaking foreigners, and learn how the language is used, as reported by Anton:

Sometimes I took them outside the school to practise with native speakers or tourists.

It is for the same reason that some teachers made it compulsory for students to use English in non-instructional, out-of-classroom activities within the school.

Sometimes if some students like to leave the school and they ask for my permission, if they don’t speak English they will not be allowed to go out, because I think it’s a part of teaching to use the language. (Hamid)

Hamid’s comment suggests that an authentic atmosphere of EL use is provided to the students when they communicate with their teachers outside the classroom.

Second, IETs should be able to develop the text or discourse for teaching speaking skills. They can give their students a general topic to develop into various speaking activities.

For introduction, for example, [I tell my students] “OK, Ani, you are going to introduce your sister to your teacher.” You give the situation like that and then they create the dialog and practise in front of the class [on] “how do you introduce your sister to your teacher.” It is more interesting. (Tita)

According to the teachers, they provided students with the vocabulary, a topic, or a ‘situation’ to be developed into speaking activities in the target language.

The other teachers also gave their students a broad topic, but students were asked to come up with a monologue, rather than a dialogue. Students were told to produce ‘reports’ to the class about news items from the television or newspapers. The ‘reports’ may be in the form of loose sentences or a complete written/spoken discourse.

One time I asked students to pick an article from [The] Jakarta Post...They came with the article, they read [it]...try to understand [it]...Then they should share with their class members about what they have read orally. That way they improve their speaking. (Amat)
The comments imply the need to develop in students the ability to produce different genres of spoken English. Specifying some of the genres, Ati said:

I ask them to speak in front of the classroom. If (after) I teach them about narrative… they tell a story… For explanation… they explain what they have got from other subjects… For discussion… they make a discussion by using a debate, the Australasian style.

A teacher in an SMK reported the use of topics in relation to the students’ specific area of study. These “vocational topics” were for students to develop into dialogues and centred around speech situations they were likely to encounter in their future employment.

I help my students… to practice speech… like reservation, “Please talk about reservation”… Maybe I use Indonesian… to make sentences and then translate them into English… And then, maybe I give something, a real object, and then they describe it. (Ima**)

Third, the teachers had a specific view regarding the use of role-plays in teaching speaking skills. Students were generally given a topic to be developed into a dialogue which they would act out later on. This practice stage can be done in pairs, in groups, or as a class.

First of course the students are able to speak in front of the class… but we should have we give[n] the material beforehand. For example, I give the material… in which one student is a boss and… the other is as employer… role-play. (Zaki)

The activities or methods for developing students’ speaking skills described in this section should be as authentic and realistic as possible. IETs need to design tasks or activities that are about real situations or objects, based on common expressions, and conducted with regard to promoting classroom dynamics.

### 7.2.3.9 Teach Reading Skills

#### a. Goals

The teachers’ perspectives on the objectives of teaching reading skills were articulated in three key points.

First, reading comprehension means understanding a given text in English, and it is not about reading a text aloud, as some people might think.

Reading is comprehension. They (students) have to be able to understand… the text… the main idea… infer the main ideas… find out what is the synonym for this word and the other words, for example. (Adi)
However, as the teachers pointed out further, there are times when reading aloud is necessary. That is, for instance, when their students are expected to tell a story by reading the text. Emphasis on comprehension, nevertheless, remains.

When it comes to narrative, students have to be able to retell the story. But in other texts, like descriptive, procedure…it’s different. They have to understand the text. (Lisda)

Reading aloud is also necessary when the teacher's objectives include developing students’ pronunciation.

Pronunciation is included in the reading objectives, as well as comprehending the text and answering the questions. [So is this about reading aloud?] Yes. [Why? Is it in the curriculum?] No...because students’ speaking isn’t good enough. The reading gives them more practice in pronunciation and allows their classmates to practice listening. (Lily)

While pronunciation is enhanced through reading, students’ comprehension, nevertheless, remains an important part of the goal.

Second, IETs should use comprehension questions to measure students’ comprehension of a reading material. The questions can be about implied and/or stated pieces of information in the text.

They have to read some texts and they can [should be able to] answer [questions about] implicit and explicit [information]. (Ati)

The teachers also said that students’ answers to the questions during reading lessons do not necessarily have to be grammatically correct. Short answers containing the core detail in question would be accepted.

I usually ask the [reading] comprehension questions approximately 2 minutes after students read a reading material. I want them to show their comprehension immediately. Even if they answered...yes or no [or] in incomplete sentences, I accept the answer. It means they understand. The rest can be taken care of later. (Yola)

It goes without saying that implied pieces of information are generally more difficult to infer from reading materials than the stated ones. IETs should have the skill to develop their students’ ability to respond to reading comprehension questions based on the two types of information.

Third, the teachers emphasised the final-year students’ preparation for their EL national examinations, of which reading comprehension is part.
In the national test the reading (test) is included...so the reading here must be a comprehension [of] reading. [It is expected that]...students can answer the question[s] from the reading passage. (Arie)

The teachers know that the reading comprehension section of EL final examinations consists of two parts. The first part is the reading text consisting of several paragraphs, and the second part is made up of a number of questions developed based on the passage. The students’ task is to read and comprehend the passage, and then to answer the comprehension questions given.

b. Materials

The teachers' perspectives on the materials for teaching reading skills have only one key point. It is to do with IETs ability to select reading materials from a variety of sources. These include print materials in various forms and materials available on the Internet.

Sometimes I can get it (the material) from [the] Internet or the book, the textbooks or the worksheets, magazines. Sometimes *** I ask them to cut the magazine, or a newspaper and then I asked them to tell about what they have read. (Ati)

This point was reiterated by other teachers who emphasised the importance of using realistic reading materials that students are familiar with in their everyday lives.

I take some real texts like advertisement...notice, letters, some film tagline...something real...they can find in real life. I think it will be more interesting. (Widya)

Widya taught at an SMK where students are widely known to have less proficiency and interest in English compared to those in SMA. SMK students are prepared to enter the workforce upon completion, while SMA students are expected to undertake further education when they graduate. Rather than being taught reading skills for analytical purposes, Widya’s students need to be taught using a practical approach based on their future orientation. To this Linda added:

Because it [this] is a vocational school...(my students) need to master the TOEIC...get the certificate...get the job in international hotels. (To teach writing) I use hotel brochure[s], pamphlet[s], newspaper[s], cutting [clippings] from newspaper[s]... schedule of train. (Linda)

Therefore their reading materials should be taken from the real life or daily life.
c. Activities/Methods

The teachers’ perspectives on the activities or methods of teaching reading skills were articulated in two key points.

First, IETs should apply the basic procedures in the activities or methods of teaching reading skills. Reading lessons should be conducted in three stages:

At pre-reading…I show the picture, [or] ask my student[s] to read the text, or giving (create) a story…For whilst-reading, [I] giving [give them] a [comprehension] question[s]…For post-reading…summaris[ing], retelling, giving [an] opinion. (Ria)

The teachers’ perspectives suggest that the two stages have similar patterns, and variety among individual teachers is mainly to do with the materials they use. In the pre-reading stage, the teacher sets the scene or introduces the topic of the text. The whilst-reading stage constitutes the main event where students are involved in silent or, in some cases, reading aloud activities. This stage is aimed at making students comprehend the text. A secondary objective, in certain cases, is to improve students’ vocabulary, pronunciation, and listening skills as well. The post-reading stage usually consists of various activities aimed principally to check students’ comprehension of the general and/or specific elements of the text.

The second key point in this case is to do with ensuring students’ comprehension of the reading materials. This is conducted in the following four ways.

- Reading for Specific Information (e.g. Vocabulary and Key Pieces of Information)

In order to enhance students’ comprehension of the reading text, IETs should design activities through which students find specific information. This can be achieved by, among other things, looking closely at the vocabulary and key pieces of information in the text. When this is done, students can be engaged in further activities.

[The focus is on] how students understand the reading text…They also learn [how] to improve their vocabulary mastery by making [notes of] some of [the] words they found….For high level students…I just [ask them to]…read the text…create questions of their own, and give the answer. So they share what they know. (Amat)
• Making Inferences

To ensure students’ comprehension, the teachers involve students in making inferences on the basis of general information and implicit or explicit details in the text.

I ask [for] the implicit message from the text, or…conclusion…summary [in] their own words. [I ask them], “After reading, what is your summary…conclusion…point of view you catch from the reading?” If they can give comment…it means they understand. (Wawan)

It was also indicated that there is a close connection between reading and writing in this particular approach.

For example, I ask them to read a text and make a kind of summary….Reading and writing are closely related…and also in speaking…I think reading is…a good tool to create any activity…you can develop the vocabulary…the grammatical…structure of the text. (Riani)

In Riani’s opinion, the connection between reading and writing in this case lies in the versatility of the reading materials for the development of the other English skills.

• Use of L1/Translation

Students are asked to use Indonesian or English-Indonesian translation to show their comprehension of the text and its elements.

[I check] their comprehension by giving them questions … by getting them to say the text in Indonesian. I ask them “Who can say this text in Indonesian?”, and some students usually volunteer. (Rina*)

These comments show that students’ verbal representation of the English text and its vocabulary in Indonesian is used by the teachers as an indicator of comprehension.

• Reading Aloud

The objective of students’ comprehension of a reading text may be achieved through reading aloud activities.

I give reading aloud, and beside[s] that, I ask the students…to read, news reading…like [on] a television. So we [they] must be able to read fluently based on the…[correct] pronunciation. (Zaki)

Zaki seemed to suggest that students’ correct pronunciation of the words in the reading text indicates their comprehension. This perspective needs further justification because a student might be able to read aloud in English correctly, but he or she might not understand all the words or even the whole text. At the suprasegmental level, however, my
own experience shows that a student’s correct use of stress or intonation when reading aloud a text usually indicates their understanding of parts or the whole text.

7.2.3.10 Teach Writing Skills

a. Goals

The teachers’ perspectives on the objectives of teaching writing skills contain two key points.

First, the objective of teaching writing skills is to enable students to produce two main kinds of texts: texts about the students’ own real-life experiences, and texts based on written genres. On real-life experience texts:

For example, many students litter as they please. “What do you think about this situation?”, and they can give their arguments…The topics are about real problems happening in this school, not about politics that students may not be interested in…or about travelling by airplane that they have never experienced. (Ani)

Ani wanted her students to be able to write about what they have experienced in the past. Other teachers, however, believed that students could also be expected to write about what they might experience in the future.

I ask them to write a diary in order to motivate them…for example, [for] Beauty students….“Write the steps of how you have facial or creambath in English”. For Resto [Restaurant students], “[Write the] recipe in English…to make fried * [rice]”. So…it can be the goal of our teaching, for example…to teach the competency. (Linda)

On writing genre-based texts, the teachers said that their objectives were to enable their students to write various text types. For example, Arief, an SMK teacher, wanted his vocational students to be able to write about procedures. Procedure texts such as cooking recipes were viewed by SMK teachers as easy texts for their students to write.

Teachers who taught in general schools wanted their students to write more varied types of texts. For example, Tati, who taught SMA students, wanted to enable her students to write narrative texts, in addition to the other genres. Lisda and Lily, both SMP teachers, wanted their students to write descriptive texts. Lily said:

Students in year 7 [might be asked] to make an identity card, business cards; those with names, addresses…as they are beginners. Years 8 and 9 students may be asked to write descriptive texts [Such as?] A person, for the picture, and then describe a thing…their house. (Lily*)
Second, one of the goals is grammatical accuracy in writing. Enabling students to produce different text types in English implies an emphasis on grammatical accuracy in students’ written work.

I want to enable students to write the type of text I have taught them. Some students simply translate the Indonesian words into English; the results are “Indonesian style” texts. Teachers should attend to this…especially the grammar. Writing is different from speaking. (Ismi*)

Ismi did not specify in her comment how she checked the grammatical accuracy of her students’ written work, but I guess she did what many IETs are known to have done. She would correct any of the errors in her students’ written assignments and hand them back for students to review.

Last Ramadan I asked them (students) to write about what they experienced during fasting…one paragraph per day. I found so many grammatical mistakes…I correct their mistakes straight away…because if I delay, they might forget their own mistakes. (Rina*)

Rina was an SMP teacher who had her own way of giving such feedback. She gave it directly when she responded to a student reading his or her written work aloud before the class.

b. Materials

The teachers’ views about the materials for writing contain two key points regarding two types of materials used in writing lessons.

First, the general materials for writing are English texts including words, sentences, paragraphs, and compositions. Depending on their level or teachers’ lesson objectives, students may work only on words and sentences at a given time, or only on paragraphs and compositions at another.

Sometimes I ask the student to arrange the words to become sentence[s]…the simple ones…make positive, negative or interrogative sentences…After that, from the sentences to a small paragraph….I give the title and…the theme, and I ask the students to combine…answer the theme…[and] the question. By answering the question they can make a small paragraph. (Arie)

Second, specific writing materials consist of various composition genres and vocational English. Composition genres are prescribed for students in general schools,
namely SD/MI, SMP/MTs, and SMA/MA, as per the guidelines in the individual school’s KTSP.

It (the material) depends on the genre…text type. Suppose they have to write a narrative text…a fable…it must really represent a fable text type. Sometimes students do not write about fable but history of whatever. So it is based on what we call content. (Alim)

I use the term “vocational writing materials” to refer to the types of written texts SMK/MAK students are expected to produce. The emphasis is that the texts may be useful for students when they leave school and apply for jobs.

[There is] not too much [emphasis on writing in SMK] because…after graduating from the school what they [students] have in mind [is] “I would like to apply for a job”. [So] I focus on the material that’s concerning the job applicant[s], for example, how to make a[n] application letter, curriculum vitae. (Anton)

c. Activities/Methods

Two key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives on the activities or methods in teaching writing skills.

The first key point is that in teaching writing, IETs should address the question What do the students need to write about?

- Developing a Main Idea

According to the teachers, in general students can be given writing tasks simply by instructing them to write a piece based on a given title, theme, information, or even picture. These are used as the main ideas for developing single sentences or a complete composition.

The easiest is to ask students to write something in their own words, such as about their experience. [Would you give them the title, theme?] Yes, for them to develop. [What do they write?] If not a list [of sentences], then a narrative. (Chaya)

The title or theme of writing comes from at least four main sources. In Chaya’s case, the students’ themselves could be the source, i.e. in the form of their personal experiences. In Marni’s case, the title or theme is taken from a picture or derived from the teacher’s own explanation. The comments imply that the pieces of writing should be composed in a suitable writing genre.
• Genre-based Topics

Based on the current content standards, a genre-based approach in teaching EL should be applied in teaching writing skills. Students should be taught to write the different text or composition types as stipulated by the genre-based approach. Students’ ability to write the right composition type is emphasised.

There are many…text types, like narrative, discussion…explanation….So…I give them the example…[and] show that this is a kind of narrative. There is [are] the steps, how to write [it]. This first paragraph is about this…second paragraph about this, and then they develop [it]. (Ria)

To ensure that students write in the expected genre, examples need to be given in the form of reading materials written in that genre.

• Vocational English

The teachers who taught SMK students said that their specific aim was to enable their students to produce pieces of writing that would be relevant for their future careers.

I ask them to write their diary. I ask them, for example, for Beauty students, “Please write the step[s] of how you have facial or creambath in English”, and to write, for Resto [students], [a] recipe in English…to make fried rice. (Linda)

The focus here is just writing letters, correspondence, because [we want] to make the students able [to write] business correspondence. (Zaki)

These two teachers talked about teaching vocational English to two different groups of students. Linda’s were hospitality SMK students from the Beauty and Cooking departments, and Zaki’s were business administration SMK students.

The second key point is to do with the question What should teachers do to create a successful writing lesson? There are three main things that IETs need to do.

First, IETs need not worry about their students’ grammatical errors in writing all the time. In their opinions, the content of the writing is more important than grammar. Grammar errors are to be expected, and teacher correction can be done at a later stage.

[The focus is on the] content of what they write. Grammar is later, accuracy is later on. (Wahid)

This “lenient” approach to student errors in writing becomes crucial when it comes to teaching children.
As long as we just have the...minor mistakes, I let them pass, and because, mostly, what is expected from them is just copying a sentence or writing a very short sentence. Mostly they are successful in that. (Ayu)

Second, students should be given writing topics that are interesting.

If you are *(stick) with [to] the textbooks, I don’t think that you’ll have successful writing (from students) because the topics [there] are very boring, and they [students] don’t like to write [about] it [them]. But [if] you ask [them]…to write something interesting for them, I think **(it’s better). (Hamid)

According to Hamid, he and his students find the writing topics in the textbooks less interesting than his own.

Third, IETs should make sure students get the guidance they need in their writing work.

I check their work around the classroom for their writing. Sometimes, I ask one student who has finished 3–4 sentences to come to my desk so I can see his work. I correct the errors, tell him to use this or avoid that. I let them ask questions if they don’t understand. So my feedback to their written work is mainly direct oral feedback. (Yola)

As Yola pointed out, when her SMP students are working on their writing, she helped them as much as possible. Unlike the other teachers quoted previously who wait until later to correct their students’ errors, Yola corrected her students on the spot.

To summarise, I have presented the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ instructional skills. I will present in the next section the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ assessing skills.

7.2.4 Assessing Skills

The term “assessing skills” is used to refer to IETs’ professional competencies in designing and administering various types of assessment and evaluation of not only students’ learning but also their own teaching. IETs’ tasks in this area are associated with tests, examinations, questions, answers, and scores.

IETs’ assessing skills were discussed in terms of the following six sub-themes.

7.2.4.1 Validity, Reliability, and Achievability

The teachers’ perspectives on the basic criteria of assessment are in regard to validity, reliability, and achievability. The teachers gave short responses in which they mentioned these three terms. However, even though none of the teachers mentioned the term
achievability explicitly, most of them articulated various conceptions that pointed to it. Their perspectives are presented in this section based on two key points.

First, assessment should be valid and reliable. The basic idea here was that IETs must be able to assess students on what they have taught them.

We have to assess the students depend [based] on the material that we have given. (Muchtar)

In assessing [my students]....I should follow the material that I have taught [the students] before. (Fifi)

In this regard, tests were often mentioned by the teachers as a form of assessment. Therefore, IETs need to have the skill in developing tests that are designed to measure the attainment of instructional goals and objectives.

Second, IETs should design an assessment task that is realistic and achievable for students. That is, the task that is within students’ ability to accomplish.

To test the material to the student, don’t test the students based on your ability, but based on students’ ability. (Muchtar)
I need to think about whether all the students will have or will be successful in that assessment, or, if not, then how? (Ayu)

Therefore, IETs must ensure the achievability of the assessment procedures that they design or administer.

7.2.4.2 Goals and Criteria

IETs should be able to design an assessment based on goals and criteria. This highlights the notion that assessment is an integral part of a teaching cycle, which consists of planning, instruction, and assessment. The teachers’ perspectives in this section are based on two key points.

First, IETs should use instructional goals as a basis for an assessment procedure such as a test. For instance, a lesson whose goal is to enable students to be proficient in speaking must be assessed with an oral test.

We have to relate [the test] with our targets or indicators. [We must] prepare well in the lesson plan. It means that if we want students to talk, we teach them speaking. [Then] we have to evaluate (assess) [them] with [a] speaking [test]. (Jefri)

Jefri referred to the instructional goals as targets or indicators. IETs are expected to elaborate the goals into objectives in the lesson plan, implement the plan in classroom
instruction, and measure its attainment through an assessment procedure. Students’ answers to the teacher’s questions in a test demonstrate their level of mastery of the material taught.

If they can answer my questions I think they understand what I teach. It’s the indicator for me. (Fitri)

A related aspect to this first key point is what the teachers referred to as *Kriteria Ketuntasan Minimal (KKM)* [minimum criteria for students’ mastery of the material].

The assessment should fulfil the minimum criteria of students’ mastery of the material outlined in the lesson plan. Students should be able to answer the test questions. (Risna*)

*KKM* refers to the assessment principle in the current implementation of *KBK* in Indonesia. These minimum criteria are based on the basic competencies expected of the students at the end of a lesson or academic period. According to *KKM*, teachers must determine the minimum criteria for students’ mastery of the material in their lesson plans and ensure these are achieved during instruction so that students succeed in their assessment.

In this regard, the minimum criteria are a part of the objectives to reach the curricular goals.

Second, IETs should use assessment criteria. Unlike *KKM*, assessment criteria are the breakdowns of a macro- or micro-skill into a number of aspects, each of which is given a mark. All the marks amount to 100 per cent or a top score (e.g. 10).

I also make the criteria for giving scores. For speaking skill, the criteria I make like [include] fluency, pronunciation, comprehension, et cetera. Based on the criteria, we believe that we will be objective. (Eva)

It may be inferred that Eva gave her students a score out of the traditional scale of 1 to 10, with 1 being the lowest score and 10 the highest. To obtain the highest score, as she pointed out, students must perform well in each aspect of assessment, e.g. fluency or pronunciation in English speaking skills. Eva believed that this method is fair as it assesses students objectively according to their overall achievement.

### 7.2.4.3 Pre-assessment Considerations

IETs should ensure that before they conduct an assessment, they have considered a number of things. Three key points can be inferred from their perspectives here.
First, IETs should refer to the lesson objectives and consider the level of students before conducting an assessment.

I have to see the objective[s]. Then later [I should think] about the level of my students. (Felix)

Felix implies here that he refers to his lesson plan, which contains the objectives, and information about his students’ profile when designing his assessments.

Second, IETs should appreciate the fact that students’ effort to communicate in a foreign language is an achievement in itself. According to Anton, as language is about communication, the assessment of students’ learning of English skills should reflect this philosophy:

Whatever they (students) can do…[and] perform, I think it’s…progress. Every students…have [has] different ability…[and] intelligence….When I ask the student[s] to perform something [and] they can do it, even though…the grammar…is not quite good, but as long as it’s communicative…it will [should] be okay.

Anton was referring to his tourism SMK students who were being trained to enter the tourism industry. An emphasis on communicative ability is suitable for his students whose future employment will require entry-level communication skill in English.

Third, students should be ready for and feel comfortable about taking part in the assessment. They should also have a good chance of success in it.

We have to consider…the schedule because [in] assessing students we have to give them the schedule before so…the students are ready to be assessed. [I also consider] the time, the place [that] can make them enjoy, comfortable. (Vina)

The teachers’ comments described in this section show that students and goals of instruction are two important aspects that IETs must consider before conducting an assessment.

7.2.4.4 Types of Assessment

a. Continuous and Comprehensive Assessment

A continuous assessment means assessing students continually from the beginning to the end of the course. A comprehensive assessment refers to IETs conducting assessment by taking into account the cognitive, affective, and psycho-motoric domains of language learning, including the four language skills.
The key point emerging from the teachers’ perspectives in this section is that IETs should consider doing assessment sessions more frequently. These are in addition to the scheduled ones conducted at the end of the third and/or sixth month(s) during a semester.

It is better if you…are going to make assessment for the student, you observe them directly in the class…[This is] better than if you give the assessment after three months..or semester. Maybe they forgot about the material…it is more better [to do it] in [during] the [learning] process. (Tita)

According to Tita, continuous assessment benefits both teachers and students. Teachers will obtain a sufficient amount of information about their students’ continual progress. Students benefit in two ways. As Tita said: (1) the materials being assessed are still fresh in their minds, making it easier for them respond to the assessment questions, and (2) they can be free from the anxiety associated with test preparations because the assessment could be done at any given time and in any given lesson.

Other teachers offered the view that in addition to the formal mid- and end-of-semester examinations, continuous assessment can be done in the form of daily tests. These can include an assessment of one, or a combination, or all of the four English skills.

For assessing, we can do [it] in [during] the process [of teaching], [or] after [the] process…Usually we have a daily test at the end of each lesson. The topics [for the test] include all skills, listening, reading [etc.]. (Nia)

Nia did not specify whether the daily test should be conducted discreetly or formally. However, whatever form they may take, daily tests enable the teacher to record students’ progress in each lesson.

b. One-on-one Assessment (for Oral-aural Work)

When it comes to assessing oral-aural skills namely speaking and listening, it would be better if the assessment is conducted one on one. Known as the oral test, this way of assessing oral skills in EL involves a face-to-face interaction between the teacher and an individual student.

We do the (oral) test directly (face-to-face) here. For example…for greeting, we do the assessment directly. This way we know which student is good and which student isn’t. Students who cheat in other tests would have difficulties here. However, this test takes a lot of our time. But we can see students’ performance and pronunciation as well. (Tiro*)
In this type of test, each of the students is usually required to either give a brief presentation in front of the teacher or the class based on a specified topic.

### 7.2.4.5 Teachers’ Self-reflection and Self-assessment

In addition to assessing their students, IETs should also be able to assess their own teaching. This self-reflection process is useful for IETs to review and plan their own lessons, teaching methods, materials, success in teaching, as well as students’ learning processes and achievement. Two key points emerged from the perspectives in this section.

First, assessment results can be used as a way of *looking back* to what has been planned and instructed in the lessons.

> In assessing students’ learning, I also assess my own teaching…I’m proud of myself if my students’ achievement is above the minimum score. [...] If I have 32 students in my class and only 5 of them pass the standard minimum score, I need to know what has gone wrong. (Rina*)

The teachers generally indicated that their self-reflection is based mostly on whether or not their students do well on the assessment, be it a daily test, or a mid-/final semester examination. The results help teachers improve their future plans.

Second, students’ assessment results can be used not only to “look back” but also to “look forward”.

> I have to make sure that my objectives can be reached or not. So I have to set the instruments to assess my students…. (Is it a test?) It’s not only a test. It can be also an observation. And then…in my lesson plan it is stated that if you have this kind of indicators, you have this kind of objectives….The assessment is part of the lesson plan. (Adi)

It can be inferred from Adi’s statement that, at least in his case, a teacher’s self-reflection can be a two-way process. It can be used as a way of looking at what the planned and instructed lesson(s) have achieved after an assessment has been conducted. Then the information gained can be used to plan the indicators and objectives of a further lesson(s).

### 7.2.4.6 Feedback and Remediation

IETs should be able to use assessment results for further actions. Two key points emerged from the teachers’ views.
First, it is important to give feedback to all the students after an assessment process such as a test has been carried out.

When I return their [test] paper[s] back, I will give them [some] comment[s] or...explanation about the things they answered, especially the wrong one[s]....I always ask the student to find the reason why this is wrong, why this is correct. (Arief)

The basic idea here is that feedback given as part of an assessment process should be used as an opportunity to maximise students' mastery of the materials.

Second, remedial assistance should be given to those students who have not done well in the assessment.

If you give the material of the test, we have to know, for example, number two, why many students do not have the right answer for the test? So we must see maybe this is the fault...of the teacher or the lack of the students. So we have to give...a remedial [lesson]. (Tati)

The sessions, according to another teacher, should be based on the materials, assessment, and feedback that have been given.

I assess their four skills...I give them more for the better [OK—students with more capability? High scores?] Ya. [OK. What about those who don’t score very highly?) I give them other chance, maybe [a] remedial [session], and I ask them to practise more. (Ati)

The teachers’ comments indicate that there is a close connection between giving feedback to students and providing remedial sessions. However, there is a substantial difference between these two further actions. While feedback should be given to all of the students who have taken part in an assessment process, remedial sessions should only be provided to any of the students who have not done as well as the other students.

Nonetheless, there are a number constraints that have made remedial lessons somewhat neglected by some teachers. One of those constraints is time, which many teachers in Indonesia do not have because they have so many other obligations.

We have to sit together to discuss what have been done so far, and based on our assessment what we have to do. But sometimes people (teachers) don’t do it in reality. (Hamid)

Despite the constraints, Hamid’s statements imply that providing assistance to students in any form, including remedial sessions, in order to maximise their understanding, is a skill IETs in general should have.
7.3 Analytical Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented the teachers’ perspectives on the skills expected of IETs. The skills are presented in two main sections: the “essential skills” and the “technical skills”. In general, the teachers’ perspectives discussed in this chapter have addressed the relevant points in the literature review both explicitly and implicitly.

The “essential skills” are about IETs’ English language proficiency regarded in the literature as “content” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). In general, the teachers articulated a comprehensive list of skills in this area covering three aspects: (1) Mastery of the macro-skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing; and micro-skills: e.g. pronunciation; and components of English: e.g. English grammar and vocabulary; (2) Macro-skills but with an emphasis on the oral-aural skills: speaking and listening; and (3) The importance of maintaining English proficiency for IETs. Following Borg (2006a) definition, these skills were developed during the teachers’ “schooling” and “professional coursework” and later enhanced during their “classroom practice” (p. 283). The skills are essential for EL teachers because those with a serious lack of them would be considered incompetent to operate in any EFL instructional setting.

The “technical” skills refer to IETs’ skills in planning, instructing, and assessing the lessons. The teachers articulated competency statements on lesson planning that call for IETs to have nine skills, ranging from planning lessons individually and collectively to assessing students’ mastery of the lesson. The teachers’ views about the need to take into account student factors, context, goals, indicators/standards, time and duration, resources, methodology, and assessment in planning are generally relevant to the theories on lesson planning (e.g. Scrivener, 1994, cited in Harmer, 2007b., p. 365; Ornstein, 1997; John, 2006, p. 484; Harmer, 2007b, pp. 371-377) and with the practice and/or context of EFL in Indonesia.

On instructing the lessons, the teachers articulated statements on a number of general instructional competencies that I categorised as the six A’s: “assistance”, “application”, ability”, “affection”, “autonomy”, and “awareness”. The competency statements are relevant to what the literature says about student factors (e.g. Mangubhai, 2006); classroom
management (e.g. Breen et al., 2001, p. 488); TL use (e.g. Nunan, 1991, p. 189); students’ interest and motivation (e.g. Richards, 2010, p. 189); autonomous learning (e.g. Batstone & R. Ellis, 2009); and awareness of the importance of English (e.g. Jazadi, 2003). They are also in general agreement with the practice and/or context of EFL in Indonesia.

Besides the general skills above, the teachers articulated their perspectives on teaching each of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in terms of goals, materials, and activities/methods. On listening, the teachers’ statements are in general agreement with the theories about teaching the listening skill (Spratt, et al., 2005, p. 30; Dunkel, 1991, Flowerdew and Miller. 2005, Richards, 1983, and Ur. 1984, as cited in Brown, 2007b, pp. 304-307). Their statements about teaching speaking are supported by Allwright (1984), Walsh (2002), Spratt et al. (2005, p. 34), Brown (2007b, p. 331), Ur (1996, pp. 124-131), and Jazadi (2003, p. 2). Their perspectives on teaching reading skills can also be found in Spratt et al. (2005, p. 21), Brown (2007b, p. 371 & 375), and Ur (1996, p. 150). Finally, the teachers’ general views about teaching writing skills are relevant to the principles found in Spratt et al. (2005, p. 27) and Brown (2007b, p. 402). In this regard, their views about the application of the genre-based approach (GBA) in teaching writing match those stated by Brown (2007b, p. 403), Derewianka (2003), and Ur (1996, pp. 159-166). In addition, the teachers’ statements in general also reflect the current practice and/or context (i.e. curriculum/policy) of EFL in Indonesia.

Finally, the teachers articulated their perspectives on the importance of teachers’ assessing skills with a focus on six aspects ranging from the validity, reliability, and achievability of assessment to the need to provide students with feedback. The teachers’ perspectives were found to be in general agreement with the theories and practice and/or context of ELT in Indonesia regarding assessment, evaluation, and language testing. These include the use of the word assessment as an “overarching term” for the three different activities (Inbar-Lourie, 2008); authenticity and washback being among the principles of language assessment (Brown, 2007b, pp. 446-453); the use of norm-referenced and criterion-referenced methods of assessment (Brindley, 1990); assessment as a part of professional teacher standards (Brockhart, 2011, p. 3; Bell, 2005).
The next chapter presents the teachers’ perspectives on teacher dispositions.
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Chapter 8

Teacher Dispositions

8.1 Introduction

This is the last of four chapters that present the results of data analysis of the study. It presents the teachers’ perspectives on the dispositions expected of IETs. The previous chapters have presented the major themes of teacher professionalisation, teacher knowledge, and teacher skills, respectively.

Dispositions are defined as “inherent qualities of mind and character” (OUP, 2011). They are also defined by Sockett (2006) as:

Dispositions. The professional virtues, qualities, and habits of mind and behavior held and developed by teachers on the basis of their knowledge, understanding, and commitments to students, families, their colleagues, and communities. Such dispositions—of character, intellect, and care—will be manifest in practice, will require sophisticated judgment in application, and will underpin teachers’ fundamental commitments to education in a democratic society, such as the responsibility to set high standards for all children, harbor profound concern for each individual child, and strive for a classroom and school environment of high intellectual and moral quality. (p. 23)

These definitions have been adopted for describing the teachers’ perspectives on this major theme of the study. Specifically, the dispositions are described in this chapter with respect to the notion of What IETs are expected to be like or what traits IETs’ are expected to have in teaching EFL in Indonesian primary and secondary schools?

The teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ dispositions comprise the themes of personality traits, role model traits, and professional traits. These themes have eight, two, and two sub-themes, respectively. An analytical discussion of the themes of teacher skills addressing the research questions, particularly subsidiary questions 4, 5, and 6, is integrated into the conclusion of the chapter.

8.2 Themes and Sub-themes

The three themes and twelve sub-themes of teacher dispositions were the emergent recurring patterns of the teachers’ views identified during the data analysis process. The
three themes were identified during the initial data analysis, and the twelve sub-themes were
identified during the subsequent data analysis. Table 8.1 summarises the teachers’
perspectives in general.

Table 8.1 Themes and sub-themes of the teachers’ perspectives on teacher dispositions

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8.2.1 Personality Dispositions

IETs should have personality traits that facilitate students’ learning and are supportive of
students’ acquisition of English. These traits are all positive dispositions that the teachers
believed students, colleagues, the government, and society at large would expect all IETs to
portray in their personal, professional, and social lives.

8.2.1.1 Basic Personality Traits

It is essential for each and every IET to be basically a ‘good’ person, with basically good
personality traits. The phrase “good personality traits” may be used to describe all the
positive, favourable characteristics that all teachers, especially IETs, are expected to have.

As English teacher[s] [they] must be good [in] appearance, good looking. [They] must be modest [and] be a good example [in] the [their] attitudes, their behavior. [They must have] the characteristics of the teacher[s] who are teaching English, teachers who can make the students enthusiastic in receiving English. They must be friendly, kind, moderate. (Muchtar)
Muchtar’s statement lists a range of favourable characteristics of an IET. Elements of the characteristics he mentioned may be interpreted from the key points of the teachers’ perspectives described in this section.

Six key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives.

First, IETs should have a ‘good and nice personality’, as well as good attitudes and behaviour.

A good teacher should have…[a] good personality, [be] cheerful [and] friendly….I think it [these are] include[d] in good personality. (Lisda)

In Lisda’s opinion, IETs should have a good character and a good personality, the two broad traits expected of all teachers and not limited to IETs only. However, the significance of these traits in the teachers’ perspectives is that the teachers were fully aware of the fact that despite the growing awareness of the importance of English skills, EL remains a subject that many students find difficult to learn. IETs with a good character and personality might be perceived to have the ability to make EL learning easier for students.

We [should] try to keep smiling, try to be nice and talk with the students….We know that the students, most of them, are teenagers, So the teacher should try to be enjoy- [You mean teach in a fun way?] Yes. (Alam)

The teachers seemed to believe that students learn at their best when their IETs deliver the lessons and engage in both classroom and out-of-classroom interactions in an ‘enjoyable’ fashion. This atmosphere is achieved, among other things, when IETs present themselves as pleasant personalities.

Second, IETs should be ‘religious’ or, as defined in Merriam-Webster Dictionary’s (2011) definition: “devoted to religious beliefs or observances”. Thus, ideal IETs are those who are not only religious but who also practise their religion.

Attitude…I think balance [of] attitude, knowledge and iman and takwa….Although they have good knowledge, but [if] they don’t have iman and takwa, how could it be? We can’t imagine ya that. (Mega)

Mega used the Islamic terms iman and takwa to describe what she thought IETs should have as religious persons. The two terms are usually shortened to imtak and used in conjunction with iptek which stands for ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi ‘knowledge and technology’. Imtak and iptek, therefore, refer to the idealised balance of religiosity on one hand and knowledge (also means science) and technology on the other.
The other teachers emphasised that IETs demonstrate religiosity because they are their students’ role models.

Because this is an Islamic school, so we are expected to have a very high spiritual [life]... In this school... The atmosphere is established by... [a routine in which takes place] every day. The first thing that teachers do in this school at 6.30 is going to the mushola, and they pray... read the Qur’an together. We expect the students will see that, “Oh, my teacher [is doing that]”. (Ayu)

Due to the Islamic status of Ayu’s madrasah, all of the teachers, who are all Muslim, must set an example of their religiosity. They do this through an involvement with students in regular Islamic rituals. In my observation during the fieldwork, a similar practice occurred in many general, non-Islamic schools. As these schools have a mushola ‘prayer hall’ or even a proper mosque, all Muslim teachers, students, and employees usually performed the noontime prayer which falls during school hours.

A similar situation can be found in religion-based schools other than madrasahs. Teachers, students, and employees who believe in one of the other five recognised religions which characterise their schools could be expected to conduct their own religious rituals together.

Third, IETs are expected to have wisdom. Wisdom is defined as “the quality of having experience, knowledge, and good judgment” (OUP, 2011).

The perspectives in general take into account the fact that IETs must deal with different types of students, most of whom are teenagers from low income families who sometimes have relatively unfavourable attitudes towards learning English.

When they (IETs) find the students... don’t understand something, they have to control themselves. [They should] not be bad-tempered, and [but] try to put it as a challenge. (Hamid)

According to Hamid, in such a situation IETs should use their wisdom, which comprises their knowledge, experience, and good judgment, so that they avoid becoming impatient with students' poor performance or unacceptable behaviour. Diana and Yola concur:

We need to apply our wisdom. Who knows our students are in a difficult situation? In my experience, sometimes our students have big problems at home, but we force them to achieve something. We don’t get what we look for, and we create problems instead. (Diana*)
A good teacher, in my opinion, is one who is wise in conducting his or her duty. A teacher’s wisdom should be for the purpose of educating students. Wisdom does not mean facilitating, making things [too] easy. (Yola*)

Diana’s point here is that when responding to students’ poor performance or unacceptable behaviour, a wise IET would consider all aspects including students’ personal problems before judging them and making a decision or taking a further action. Yola emphasised that IETs should respond to students’ poor performance or unacceptable behaviour wisely. However, their understanding of the contributing factors should not be grounds for leniency as it would violate the purpose of education.

Fourth, IETs should be humble. The definition of this disposition is “the quality of having a modest or low view of one’s importance” (OUP, 2011). Humility seemed to be emphasised by the teachers due to IETs’ professional status and linguistic abilities. Just like all Indonesian teachers, IETs are highly respected by their students, parents, and society. As EL teachers, they are generally perceived to be proficient in English, a foreign language many Indonesians associate with prestige and one that they find hard to learn. Therefore, IETs are expected to stay humble despite being held in such a high esteem.

The teachers articulated teacher humility in a number of ways. For example, to some of the teachers, humility means modesty:

As [an] English teacher, [you] must be…must be modest…[in] the attitudes [and] the behavior. (Muchtar)

For other teachers, humility means that IETs are not arrogant. IETs sometimes say things that are perceived as indicative of their arrogance.

We (teachers)…come to the class to facilitate students (learning). Sometimes, teachers come to the class [and say], “You have to listen to me. I’m the main resource here. (Jefri)

In Jefri’s opinion, IETs are not behaving humbly when they think that students must listen to what they say and that they are the students’ only source of knowledge. Arrogance is also shown by IETs who do not care about their students.

If the teacher is…arrogant…[a] who-cares person…and if the students don’t like the teacher, it’s difficult for…[the teacher] to transfer the knowledge to the students. (Linda)
According to Linda, IETs are arrogant when they are not humble enough to care about their students’ learning. Students prefer IETs who are sensitive to their problems and appreciative of their achievements in learning a foreign language. Arrogance will affect IETs’ efforts to teach their students English.

To other teachers, humility means not behaving in an authoritarian way.

The teachers say, they (students) have to obey what the teacher say[s]….But I think that, [that’s] no[t good], because the time [has]…change[d]….Authority [authoritarian] teacher[s] is [are] not needed. (Andi)

Andi criticised the behaviour of some ‘authoritarian’ IETs who could be perceived as bossy, irrelevant in modern education, and unfriendly. IETs have no reason to be authoritarian because they are no longer the only source of knowledge for many students.

Fifth, IETs should be sociable. They should be willing “to talk and engage in activities with other people” (OUP, 2011).

[Teachers should have] social competencies [in their relationships] with neighbours and fellow practitioners. (Risna*)

In Risna’s opinion, as professional educators, IETs are already socialising with their students for instructional purposes during school hours. They should also socialise and be active in their social relationships with the people around them (e.g. neighbours and fellow teachers and/or IETs).

For (because) they’re living in [the] community, the teacher is [should be] active in [the] society. (Alam)

Alam indicated that IETs should take part in various social activities held in the neighbourhood, village, town, or city where they live. Sometimes IETs could be the most educated and experienced people in the society. Their teaching and language skills might also be needed in certain situations. Therefore, their active involvement is expected by the community.

Finally, a combination of favourable teacher dispositions is expected of all IETs. For example, Erna and Nur said that IETs should be helpful towards their students, Riani believed that they should love working with and teaching children, and Lita stressed that it is important for IETs to be ikhlas ‘sincere’ in conducting their duties.
8.2.1.2 Conviviality

Conviviality is “the quality of being friendly and lively” (OUP, 2011). IETs should have this quality in order to bridge the gap between them and students.

Some of us…sometimes believe that teachers and students live in two different worlds. That’s why students usually feel afraid to say what they think, particularly when it comes to expressing their disagreement. This is really unfortunate for students. (Tita*)

Such a gap, as articulated by Tita, causes students to worry more about being respectful to teachers than about expressing their opinions, which is important for developing their English. The gap can only be bridged by IETs who meet two basic criteria.

First, IETs should be friendly to their students. Being friendly means that IETs should show:

…many smile [sic]. [Smiles?] Yes, smiles, but not always ya [L]…[We should be] friendly. [When] we meet the student[s], we smile. If the student doesn’t greet us, we greet them first. (Fitri)

What Fitri had in mind could be that with all the social and professional recognition that IETs have, their smiles are like a handshake of friendship to students who look up to them.

In the context of EFL teaching and learning, IET's friendliness has a significant meaning:

Students are already scared of English. If they hate the subject, they hate me. If they hate me, then on the day I teach my lesson they will pray that I will be sick, or my children will be sick, or whatever, so I will be absent. If I’m absent, then there’s no lesson, they don’t study. (Asni*)

Asni implied that because EL has long been considered a tough subject, it should be taught by friendly teachers. In other words, IETs should be friendly so that they can project a positive image of their subject. Students who dislike their English teacher may also dislike the subject. The same thing can be said about students who are ‘afraid’ of their EL teacher.

The student[s] should not be afraid of the English teacher. Some of them are afraid of the English teacher because of the subject. [The teacher] should be nice, friendly…smiling. (Nia)

Nia implied that EL is a ‘frightening subject’ for some students, and, as a consequence, their EL teachers become ‘frightening teachers’ for them. IETs can improve the image if they are friendly.
Other teachers described IETs' friendliness as their being like friends or parents to students.

The teacher must make themselves as a friend of the student[s]…or a mother or father. A teacher must be like that. (Tati)

A friend or a parent is generally described as a loving, supportive, understanding, protective, and guiding person who only wants the best for his or her friend or child. Such qualities, in Tati’s mind, begin with friendliness. Therefore, IETs should be friendly teachers.

Second, IETs should have a sense of humour. This quality is needed by IETs to overcome many of their students’ shyness.

It’s not easy to motivate them to speak….We need to learn a lot to motivate the student[s to] speak….Being homorous is…important because [with our] sense of humor, the student…think [the teacher] is friendly. (Riani)

In Riani’s opinion, an IET’s sense of humour gives the impression to shy students that he or she is friendly. This would make them feel secure and enable them to engage in various tasks, especially speaking, which is quite challenging for many students.

However, having a sense of humour does not mean that IETs should be ‘humorous’ all the time.

They (IETs) must be flexible, humorous—sometimes, not all the time [L]. [To be] humorous all the time, I think, is not good. (Hamid)

One of the reasons why IETs should not use humour excessively is that it may distract them from achieving the lesson goals and objectives. There are also times when excessive humour becomes inappropriate due to the age difference between IETs and students, and a host of other reasons.

8.2.1.3 Self-restraint

IETs should impose restraint or self-control on themselves. This was in the teachers’ perspectives on how IETs as adults should deal with the challenges they face in teaching their children and teenager students. Many students find English hard, and their attitudes and behaviour could make IETs impatient. Two key points emerged here.

First, IETs should have a lot of patience.

(English) teachers have to…be patient, and always do everything after think[ing] a lot….because we are teacher[s], not like the other [people] outside. (Lina)
Lina saw IETs as intelligent, educated professionals and role models for students and society. In reacting to challenging situations, they should think, act, and/or speak logically rather than emotionally. If they do feel emotional about something, they should restrain themselves so as not to embarrass themselves and their profession.

An ideal teacher’s competency is his or her patience. (For example), every time I walk past some of my colleagues’ classrooms, I heard them raise their voices. They might be very competent as teachers, but they are impatient in dealing with the students. (Diana*)

Diana was referring to her colleagues, teachers at a technical SMK, in which a large majority of students are male teenagers. Some of them found that some of their students would not listen or learn something unless the teacher raised their voices perhaps in frustration. According to Diana, IETs should not get so frustrated in teaching.

Second, IETs should control their anger.

[They] should not get angry easily….must be patient…because sometimes the students…don’t want to do the task [or]…speak, even though we ask them to. (Tati**)

Tati described IETs’ patience in the same breath as their not getting angry. In other words, IETs who are patient do not get angry easily; they have sufficient self-restraint to stay composed.

I think we have to treat the students well. We are not angry with [students]….We have to persuade them…because if the student[s] do not like the teacher ☞ I think they cannot study well. (Ardi)

As Ardi said, IETs’ anger at the students for any reason is bad treatment and bad teaching. Students, especially those who are not as bright as others, do not deserve the anger because their learning may be affected by it.

By getting angry easily, IETs might put themselves at risk, if they are not careful:

If you’re always angry, and [then] the students can [could] wait [for you] outside the school…and they can [could] do (bad) things (to you). (Hamid)

Hamid was referring to the serious problems faced by a few teachers in the past. If their students did not like the way they were treated, then, in retaliation, they could harm the teacher outside the school. Asked whether this still holds true today, Hamid said:

Actually, it’s still happening, maybe only the intensity is not as it was in the past. But it’s still there.
8.2.1.4 Integrity

IETs should have integrity. Two key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives on this quality.

First, IETs should be responsible. Many IETs are professional, but there are many others whose actions undermine the integrity of the profession. These include IETs who:

…[j]ust come into the class they explain the lesson, and give them (students) the task[s] without [much] preparation. (Nia)

In Nia’s opinion, these IETs’ behaviour was irresponsible and unprofessional, putting other non-teaching duties or personal affairs before their teaching responsibility. Indeed, many such IETs are not fully committed to teaching their students properly and they rely on ready-made materials from the textbook, for example, to keep students busy. In some cases, they even ask the class captain to “teach” the class in their absence by dictating or writing the contents of a book section on the blackboard for all the students to write down.

Some teachers do teach their lessons but they use out-dated teaching methods.

Some teachers...just...give [the] materials to the students. They don’t care [whether] the students understand or not. To be a good teacher we have to follow the current...teaching methodology. (Yunus)

In Yunus’ observation, these IETs’ concern is their teaching, not their students’ learning. Instead of making their lessons more interesting for students and using new ways of teaching, they choose to stay in their comfort zone. The new methods may call for modern technologies as well as creative games, activities, and projects to facilitate student learning. Many other IETs have embraced and applied these enthusiastically, so by being reluctant, these IETs can be described as irresponsible.

Other teachers do teach the lessons properly, but they do not bother to provide further assistance to students.

Sometimes there are [is] some [a] perception of [among] teachers in Indonesia...that teachers just to teach in the classroom...[that] they don’t have [other] responsibilities....They have to repeat, too...not only in the classroom but also outside the classroom. (Andi)

In Andi’s opinion, teachers are responsible for post-lesson follow-up activities. These include giving remedial lessons to students with learning difficulties. (He described it as IETs’ responsibility ‘to repeat’ the lesson.) As a consequence of not providing follow-up activities,
many students’ problems with EL never get resolved and the cycle of learning difficulties continues. Therefore, IETs are considered irresponsible if they deny their less fortunate students this assistance.

The three problems, i.e. lack of preparation, use of outdated methods, and lack of assistance, are concerned with three aspects of teaching, namely planning, instructing, and remediation. They constitute parts of any teacher’s responsibility for which he or she will be held accountable.

I have to do my job exactly...in the right order...exactly [as] what they want, and then be responsible for what I have done. I want to show the students and their parents that I have done this, and they can assess me. (Hamid)

Hamid treated his students and parents as stakeholders in education. He was aware that what he had planned, taught, and got his students involved in was something he was responsible for. Hamid would teach his students properly, use interesting and updated ways of teaching, and provide remediation if necessary. In other words, teaching is not for the sake of teaching only but, more importantly, also for the stakeholders to assess.

Second, IETs should be honest. In fact, the call for teachers’ honesty has been emphasised in the current educational climate in Indonesia.

The situation nowadays has made teachers lose their morality. They are all after the certification allowance, so they manipulated their data. They certainly don’t deserve the privilege. (Ellie)

Ellie made a direct reference to the allegations about IETs’ dishonesty. For instance, many IETs desperate for a certification allowance were accused of falsifying the documents required for their applications. This adds to the other public secrets about certain IETs getting involved in helping their students cheat on UAN or those who, for a fee, provided lists of possible test questions to desperate students’ parents. These are just some of the reasons to be concerned about teacher honesty in Indonesia today.

However, IETs’ honesty is often concerned with their daily interactions with students in instructional activities.

Teachers must be honest, especially about their problems with material. (Risna)

Risna was referring to some IETs’ lack of honesty when teaching their students. In EL lessons, certain aspects of English such as the vocabulary and grammar items can be quite
problematic for many IETs. There is a lot of anecdotal evidence about less-than-competent IETs who give students the wrong answer or false information simply because they did not want to lose face for not knowing the right answer. In fact, one of the teachers admitted this—honestly—as follows:

I have taught for 30 years, but I sometimes don’t know the answer to students’ questions….If I tell them…I will embarrass myself….To tell you the truth. I don’t know whether it is acceptable, but we must keep our good image as teachers. If students judge us badly, they could lose motivation to study.

This teacher (I deliberately omitted his/her pseudonym in the quotation above) seemed to be aware that his/her face-saving strategy may not be acceptable. However, he/she managed to justify it, using the ‘keeping students’ motivation high’ excuse, which makes it sound reasonable.

8.2.1.5 Care

Care is defined here as IETs’ capacity for perceiving, feeling, or responding emotionally, especially in regard to their immediate environment including students and colleagues. Three key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives on this quality.

First, IETs should be fair in treating their students.

We must be in the middle of the students and attend to their learning characteristics….Each of them has characteristics of their own. (Yola*)

Yola recognised students’ individual differences and how these affect how each student learns. By recognising the uniqueness of each of their students’ characteristics, good IETs would treat all students fairly and not resort to favouritism that might benefit the quick students at the expense of the slower students’ feelings and motivation to learn.

We must treat all the students with the same attitude…[W]e must accept their answers and avoid being judgmental. For example, [because Student] A’s answer is incorrect, we ask [Students] B and C, and their neighbour (for answers). We must not say, “See, [Student A], they know the correct answer. How come you don’t? Did you study yesterday or not?” (Anna*)

Anna exemplified here how an IET should be fair in terms of being sensitive to students’ feelings. They should demonstrate that they care about students’ feelings in this regard by accepting all students’ answers to their questions without criticising those who give the incorrect answers.
Second, IETs should be attentive to students who are experiencing problems. Their problems could range from personal to academic ones, or from simple to complicated ones requiring IETs’ professional attention.

Maybe students are sad and we can help them when they are in trouble…[W]e must help the student[s] if the student finds the difficulty in studying English. (Erna)

In Erna’s opinion, IETs should sympathise with students, especially those who have personal or EL learning difficulties. Students react to problems differently and they could be quite shy people who do not speak unless they are spoken to. IETs’ sensitivity in this case is shown by their ability, or willingness, to identify students with problems and communicate with them in order to help them find a solution.

When I deal with students who have problems, I think about their parents in the villages. Rather than knowledge transfer, what concerns me is…how to provide guidance, educate them to be responsible to themselves, friends, the school, and parents….I always ask my colleagues about the students….I try to know them thoroughly before judging them. (Diana*)

Diana’s sensitivity to students with problems is based on her understanding of the students, their backgrounds, and her own responsibility towards them. These factors are taken into account in any decision regarding the students that she made, including their final examination marks.

8.2.1.6 Resourcefulness

Resourcefulness is used here to refer to IETs’ quality of being full of initiative or being good at using available or accessible sources to ensure the effectiveness of their instructions. Two key points stood out from the teachers’ views here.

First, IETs should be creative. The teachers’ general attitude was that:

…only those creative people will evaluate and improve. (Ayu)

In Ayu’s opinion, IETs’ competency develops through self-evaluation and self-improvement. They constantly reflect on their own teaching and their students’ learning processes, and think of better ways to improve their outcomes. This quality is driven by creativity, which, based on the teachers’ perspectives, is in relation to materials and instruction.

IETs’ creativity in terms of materials is required for the following purposes:
Teachers should be creative in choosing the materials to make students interested. (Ardi*)
They should be creative in organising the learning materials based on real learning needs so that what students learn...matches the real world situation. (Lexy*)

We have to be very creative, to create, to modify about [the] teaching material so that the students can learn. (Yunus)

Three purposes in relation to materials were mentioned here. Ardi spoke of the need to 'choose' materials that are up-to-date, relevant to students' real lives, easy to work on, and targeted to English skills development. Lexy focused the lesson's relevance to students' real lives and emphasised the importance of IETs' creativity in 'organising' the materials in this regard. Yunus was aware that many IETs rely on textbooks and rarely modify the contents to suit their students and the context. He criticised such reliance as it causes IETs to lack focus in teaching. That is, they neglect the main aim of developing students' English skills (the end) via the materials (the means).

In terms of instruction, creative IETs were believed to use creative teaching methodology. This was believed to make students interested in the lesson.

The teacher must be creative...or has the [ability to make the class] interested in the. (Wawan)

They (students) are not interested in learning it (EL). That’s why teachers must be creative...such as in using games. (Yaya*)

According to Wawan, creative IETs are more interesting because, among other things, they use varied and/or new teaching approaches, methods, and techniques; and they make their lessons more engaging, fun, and purposeful (directed to English skills development). In Yaya's opinion, IETs' use of (language) games could assist students who have inhibitions in using English. In my experience, inhibitions are common among teenagers who are self-conscious and afraid of making "silly" mistakes in English in front of their classmates. IETs could design activities such as small group work where these students could feel secure in learning.

Therefore, IETs should be able to:

...tell something (stories)...can make the pictures [You mean they should be creative?] Creative with [using] pictures, media, etc. (Alam)
In Alam’s opinion, IETs should not teach in a traditional way all the time. They should also teach in a creative way, e.g. by telling stories in the target language and using audio-visual teaching aids and technologies.

Creativity for other teachers meant teaching the lesson outdoors:

The teacher should...deliver the lesson on a soccer field...[a] basketball court, or use nature for learning...so that learning does not become monotonous. (Nasir*)

A young teacher, Nasir was enthusiastic about teaching non-conventionally. The alternative settings he proposed might allow students to acquire the target language in a more meaningful way than in classrooms or language laboratories.

However, other teachers warned that the current system is often not supportive of IETs’ creativity for some pragmatic and short-term reasons.

It (teacher creativity) is a problem for English teachers [e]specially...the system at school makes it impossibe for us...because....we need to prepare [for] the national examination[s]. We can not do anything. It make[s] us not creative. (Widya)

Widya referred to the emphasis many schools place on the high passing rate of their final year students on UAN. In the lead up to UAN, final-year teachers are forced to give final test preparations instead of teaching the normal lessons. It must be hard in such situations to be creative when the teacher has to ‘teach the test’.

Second, IETs should be innovative and adaptable.

The most important for me being a teacher is [being] innovative. (Riani)

In teaching we should not only deliver the knowledge....Teachers nowadays...have to adapt with the situation. (Mega)

Neither Riani nor Mega elaborated their views about either disposition. The Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (2011) defines innovativeness as having new ideas or methods about how something can be done, and adaptability as the ability to change in order to fit or work better in some situation. In the context of IETs’ work, innovativeness is required to compensate for the limited resources available and to make materials more varied, more interesting, or more effective. If this was a challenge and an ideal for IETs such as Riani who worked in an urban area, it could be even more so for those who worked in Indonesia’s remote parts. Adaptability is highly relevant in the current climate of education in Indonesia for at least two main reasons. First, they need it in conjunction with their innovativeness in
terms of resources, materials, methodology, etc. Second, they need it to cope with the ever changing dynamics due to constant updates in areas such as government regulations and educational policies, particularly curriculum.

8.2.1.7 Discipline

The teachers believed that IETs should be disciplined in terms of their own time management and their students’. Two key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives here.

First, IETs should be disciplined. This disposition is described by the teachers from two points of view.

From a broad point of view, discipline was expected of all aspects of IETs’ behaviour primarily because they are students’ role models.

To be a good teacher she or he must be first disciplined [first]…because she or he is a model to the student. (Ria)

A teacher should be as a model…in pedagogical aspect and psychological behaviour….An ideal teacher should be disciplined. (Linda)

According to Ria and Linda, IETs’ discipline is a role-model’s disposition. In other words, being disciplined should be IETs’ first and foremost disposition. Pedagogically, IETs are responsible for instilling discipline in their students through classroom and non-classroom activities. Psychologically, IETs’ discipline could influence their students who might see their teachers’ as models for good behaviour.

From a narrow point of view, students are seen as having the tendency to misbehave and it is IETs’ responsibility to discipline them. Discipline here refers to the action that IETs need to take to respond to students’ misbehaviour.

In a vocational school like this, if you let students do whatever they want, they will look down on you. We used to have many female English teachers here who had given up on teaching their classes because their students were so unruly. But when I took over and used a hard approach, things changed for the better….We need a firm action in addition to patience, and it all depends on the situation, and students and teachers must make a commitment. (Arie*)

Arie was referring to his SMK where students are predominantly male and who often misbehave. They sometimes give IETs, particularly the female ones, a hard time. Arie
believed that his firm action, his restraint, and his ‘hard approach’ had been successful in disciplining his students.

Second, IETs should be punctual. The teachers saw IETs’ punctuality as arriving on time in the classroom to deliver the lesson. For some of the teachers, punctuality is the most important disciplinary disposition.

The most important perhaps is [teacher’s] discipline in coming to the classroom. (Tiro*)

Tiro observed that while many IETs do come to school on time to teach their classes, others were not so punctual.

Good teachers…have to [be] disciplined…. [If] they always come not on time, how can we say that he…or she can be the model for the students? (Mulia)

Mulia here is complaining about the bad habit of not arriving on time among her fellow IETs who, in fact, are supposed to model punctuality to their students. Therefore:

[Teachers] should be punctual so that students could emulate them. So the first and foremost is that they are on time. (Anna*)

Based on Anna’s comment, two things could be useful for students when their teacher is punctual: (a) they could emulate the teacher’s professionalism which is an important disposition for their future; and (b) they could see IETs’ practice of punctuality as an element of the English speakers’ culture that they should be aware of.

In addition to demonstrating punctuality, IETs should also expect their students to be punctual.

Both teachers and students must be disciplined. Some teachers are always on time, but they don’t ask their students to do the same. (Tiro*)

In Tiro’s opinion, IETs need to ensure that their students are as punctual as they are. In other words, IETs, for instance, should not be lenient to students who come late to a lesson.

8.2.1.8 Presentability

The teachers believed that it is important for IETs to be presentable in front of their students and other people. Their general views are that IETs should be “clean, smart, or decent enough to be seen in public” (OUP, 2011) and pleasant to look at.
As English teacher[s] we must have a good appearance, and be good looking. (Muchtar)

Nevertheless, Muchtar’s choice of words (‘having a good appearance’ and ‘being good looking’), which is shared by the other teachers in this sub-section, is a little problematic. The former is something that all IETs could manage, e.g. by being well-groomed and/or well-dressed. The latter (i.e. being beautiful, handsome, or physically attractive) is something that not all IETs are lucky enough to be. It is possible to standardise IETs’ presentability (e.g. by requiring them to adhere to a certain dress code), but it is impossible to standardise IETs’ physical attractiveness. The teachers might not be aware of this subtle semantic difference because their general attitude shows that they were thinking more of the former than the latter in their statements. Two key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives here.

First, IETs should look their best in their dress code for work.

A teacher should be well-dressed, neatly-dressed. (Anna*)

In everyday terms, this means that to be presentable—and consequently ‘have a good appearance’, ‘look attractive’, or ‘good looking’—IETs should wear the formal, two-piece outfits that all teachers in Indonesia usually wear. Male teachers need to wear at least a formal shirt that is tucked into a pair of pants complete with a belt. They should also wear business shoes with socks. Certain schools such as SBI or RSBI may require them to wear a tie. Female teachers are expected to wear at least a blouse, a long or medium-length skirt, and ladies’ shoes, sometimes with socks. No teachers are expected to wear casual clothing such as T-shirts, jeans, shorts, or sandals at work.

In government schools, teachers are required by the local administration to wear uniforms from Monday to Saturday. During telephone conversations I had recently with some of the teachers, I was told that these include khakis and single-coloured uniforms, and a scout (Pramuka) uniform, all with official badges. On special days, they might also wear tops made from the national icon batik or local fabric. In addition, Muslim teachers are encouraged to wear Islamic attire; the females wear a head scarf on every working day, and

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1 An acronym of Praja Muda Karana, the Indonesian Scout Movement; the uniform consists of a cadmium orange-coloured top (with a red and white neckerchief) and a dark brown bottom.
the males a prayer shirt (*baju koko*) on Fridays. There is usually no uniform for Saturdays, but teachers must still wear formal or semi-formal clothes.

The teachers believed that their conformity to the formal dress is useful for two main reasons. First, it improves their presentability due to the formal atmosphere created by their attire in the formal setting of the school. It also gives them a sense of belonging, togetherness, equality, responsibility, and pride in their job. Second, and more importantly, they claimed that it has an effect on their teaching and students’ learning:

> The teachers should...[have], good fashion, fashionable...to make the student[s] interested to study with us. (Eva)

Getting students interested in studying English is important for many of the teachers. English is not the most popular subject in schools in spite of popular awareness of its role in modern Indonesia and the world. IETs have a central role in shaping students’ attitudes towards English. Eva’s statement suggests that a part of that role could succeed if students were interested in the lesson because of their teachers’ personal appeal.

Second, IETs’ demeanour contributes to their presentability. This refers to their “outward behaviour or bearing” (OUP, 2011), which needs to be positive. As Indonesian teachers, IETs are expected to conduct themselves in a proper, respectable manner.

> [As] the teacher[s] we have to...[be] charming to our students...maybe smile, and then...we are safety [mindful] about [of] our attitude[s]...in front of our student[s]. (Ima)

In Ima’s opinion, in interactions with their students, IETs should conduct themselves properly, e.g. by smiling and being mindful of their attitude. So IETs should be friendly but, nonetheless, their manners remain dignified. Ima’s use of the word ‘charming’ brings to mind the Indonesian word *berwibawa* ‘elegant’, which is socially expected of teachers.

An important aspect of IETs’ demeanour is their self-confidence and self-organisation.

A teacher should be self-confident and look organised in his or her performance. Students like a teacher who looks organised. (Ani*)

According to Ani, by demonstrating their self-confidence and organisation in teaching, IETs will earn their students’ respect. Ani implied that IETs’ self-confidence or lack of it could affect how they present themselves in front of the students.

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* A long-sleeved shirt with a turtle-neck collar.
In sum, this section has presented the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ ideal personality traits. The next section will present their perspectives on role model traits.

8.2.2 Role Model Dispositions

IETs’ role model traits are considered to be vital by a large majority of the teachers. In what seems to be a reflection of the social and cultural perception and expectations of the teaching profession, the teachers’ perspectives on these dispositions describe IETs not only as guru ‘teachers’ but also as pendidik ‘educators’. These two terms regarding teacher roles were given an emphasis and distinctive meaning in Indonesian by the teachers. In their opinions, mengajar ‘teaching’ as the main responsibility of a guru means delivering the materials of a school subject to students, and mendidik ‘educating’ includes instilling morality into the students through verbal and non-verbal actions. They believed that all of their responsibilities are embodied by the terms guru and mengajar as well as pendidik and mendidik.

The teachers’ perspectives on IETs as role models for their students are presented in in the following two sections.

8.2.2.1 Traits of Character Role Models

IETs’ status as character role models for students is regarded as important by the teachers. This moral-based disposition should be demonstrated through their good behaviour and attitude.

A teacher must be able to teach and educate. It means that if she could transfer her knowledge to the students, then she should be able to...instil character into them. (Lily*)

In Lily’s opinion, IETs’ teaching responsibility must be complemented with their commitment to educating students.

The teacher is the [role] model of [for] the students, so the teacher must show the students the good model (examples) in...doing something, conducting something. (Arie)

Teachers must have a good personality in the eyes of the society. So how we dress ourselves, how we talk, and so on, must reflect our good personality. (Yaya*)
According to Arie, as role models, IETs should show their students the proper ways of behaving or getting something done both in the classroom and in society. The social aspect was emphasised by Yaya who mentioned the ways in which IETs should be exemplary. Yaya’s comment reflects both society’s expectations of teachers in general and the teachers’ own awareness of the expectations. Teachers in Indonesia—locals and expatriates alike—are expected to conduct themselves according to what is considered proper behaviour and attitudes in the Indonesian culture. For example, they must wear modest clothing and speak calmly and politely because these are considered to be characteristics of a good personality.

The reason for such social expectation of IETs’ ‘good personality’ was:

...because the student[s] will imitate the teacher's good attitude; since the teacher will be imitated. (Mega)

In Mega’s opinion, students will emulate IETs’ appropriate action and speech—which she described as ‘good attitude’. Students are able to discern whether the teacher’s actions or speech is acceptable to them because students know what proper behaviour and attitudes are.

Our interaction with students is vital. Some teachers have become students’ enemies, and students call them names. That’s why it’s important that we set a good example to students. (Nasir*)

Some teachers, as implied by Nasir, have failed at being role models for the students; instead, they become ‘students’ enemies’. Their behaviour and attitude were unacceptable to some students, causing animosity. If such hostility remains unresolved through improving student-teacher interaction, it could affect teaching and learning outcomes in the long run.

8.2.2.2 Traits of English Language Learning and Use Role Models

IETs are students’ EL learning and use role models. In other words, this is about IETs’ success as EL learners and users themselves.

They (IETs) must be a good model[s]...[in] the knowledge about English...how to...pronounce, [and] how to spell [words]. (Nur)

IETs’ language modelling role is considered vital for students’ EL learning because IETs have the linguistic knowledge and skills in the target language. It must be noted that
‘spelling’ is included in Nur’s statement because this is one of the skills she taught her SD students.

The teacher must be a good model even though [he or she is] not the best….When I want my students to speak English, I have to speak English first….The students need a good model [because] they need lots of exposure of [to] English. So they listen [and] they imitate, and maybe later…they can remember what their peers have said, and [what] the teacher [has said]. (Hamid)

Hamid believed that in order to model how English is used IETs should use every opportunity, particularly classroom lessons, to speak English to and with students. By interacting more in English during classroom interactions, IETs can create an atmosphere in where they model spoken English, which benefits students with an exercise in listening in general and comprehension of classroom English in particular. This exposes students to optimum use of the target language.

It has been shown in the two sub-sections above that the teachers generally believed that IETs should become character and EL learning and use role models for all students. These expectations stem from their understanding of IETs’ central role in student character development and EL acquisition. The role, as the results have shown, covers moral, social, pedagogical, and linguistic aspects of IETs’ duty.

Interestingly, the expectations for IETs to be role models seem to reflect the teachers’ familiarity with two Indonesian proverbs: (1) Guru wajib digugu dan ditiru ‘A teacher is to be obeyed (also trusted or heard) and to be emulated’; and (2) Guru kencing berdiri, murid kencing berlari ‘A teacher passes water standing up, the student does it running’. The two proverbs emphasise teachers modelling role. The first proverb means that IETs must behave in a proper way so that their words can be taken heed of and their deeds emulated by students. The second proverb means that if teachers give students a bad example, then in the future their students might imitate it in an even worse way.

The foregoing has shown that the teachers were aware of the importance of IETs’ exemplary knowledge, skills, and dispositions because they knew that students and society expect them to be role models. The next section presents the teachers’ perspectives on the final theme of IETs’ dispositions, namely, professional traits.
8.2.3 Professional Dispositions

8.2.3.1 Commitment to Teaching Professionally

IETs’ commitment to English teaching and professional teaching is vital. Four key points emerged from the teachers’ perspectives.

First, IETs should be motivational and persuasive with the students. In a broad sense, IETs should demonstrate these characteristics in their capacity as professional educators. As far as being motivational is concerned, the teachers were of the opinion that this is part of their main responsibility.

A good teacher must give motivation to the student to study. (Tati)

As Tati said, motivating students to achieve their best in their study is part and parcel of the teaching profession in general. Teachers should use every opportunity, whether it is a teaching activity or otherwise, to motivate their students. A concrete example is as follows:

We need teachers who guide and educate the students and help them to be what they want to be. For example, in my school there are students who want to be musicians or dancers, as a teacher I need to motivate them to become what they want. (Ellie*)

Ellie emphasises that as professional educators, IETs should help students to become achievers in their areas of interest. IETs have a responsibility to encourage the young people under their guidance to realise their potential.

However, to be motivational and help students become achievers, teachers themselves must be motivated in the first place.

How high is our motivation …will influence the students’ behaviour….I don’t think the students [will] have [a] high motivation when [if] we are teaching in [with] very low interest (motivation). (Hamid)

Hamid underlines the need for teachers in general to radiate a high level of enthusiasm for teaching their subjects. This is vital for getting their students interested in the subject and motivated to excel in it.

There are many ways to motivate students, such as through positive reinforcement:

…praise them (students) if they get the best [result]. (Ardi)

Ardi believed that reinforcement is necessary and this could be done by expressing an appreciation of students’ achievements. Nevertheless, IETs should motivate students by being appreciative of students’ efforts, not just of their ‘best result’.
In a narrow sense, IETs should be motivational in their specific capacity as EL teachers. It is important to motivate students to study English because despite Indonesian people’s awareness of the role of English in the world, many Indonesian students still find English a hard language to learn. Consequently, for IETs this might mean that English is a tough subject to teach. To improve this situation, IETs’ motivational role is important to help students overcome the psychological barrier in learning English.

Teachers should...make them (students) eager to express themselves in English. Students are afraid of making mistakes and being ridiculed by their friends. (Yaya*)

Yaya understands that students’ success in learning English depends not only on their intrinsic motivation, but also on extrinsic motivation, which, in this case, is expected to come from IETs. English is introduced formally when students enter high school, at a time when many teenagers might feel extremely self-conscious and afraid of making mistakes and being ridiculed. Learning English involves making a lot of mistakes such as in grammar or pronunciation which could be embarrassing to some students. A motivational IET should convince students, for example, that making mistakes in learning a foreign language is part of the learning process.

Other teachers believed that they could raise students’ motivation by giving them information about the benefits of being proficient in English.

I sometimes tell them about what opportunities, what good things, that we can have if we are able to speak English [How useful English for their lives, their future?] Yes, I give them examples from other people and from myself. (Arief)

In Arief’s opinion, IETs are expected to inspire students. They can use their own and other people’s success with English as an example so that students can see the benefit of learning English. Students should be made aware that their English learning has a purpose that is potentially beneficial for them.

This point of view was supported by other teachers with real examples:

When I come back from Toraja, I always tell my students about my experience with the tourists there. I told them that…the tourists sometimes gave me a souvenir…email address, story books. I told my students that these are just some of the benefits I could get. I try to be motivational to my students by telling them that I’m still very enthusiastic about talking to native speakers or English-speaking friends. That’s because I want to improve my English, and learn all the time…I told [them] that in Toraja some guides never went to college but they have a lot of
money. In one day they can make at least Rp300,000 ($28) by guiding tourists. (Rina*)

Rina is originally from Tana Toraja, a tourist-destination district on the highlands of South Sulawesi. Toraja is renowned for its unique traditional culture, architecture, art, and natural beauty. Rina used her own experience of using English in communicating with foreign tourists while on vacation in Toraja in order to motivate her students to study English. She also referred to the tourist guides in Toraja and their ability to earn quite high daily income by Indonesian standards because they can speak English. Rina was certain that students would be motivated if they were told about such opportunities which many Indonesians with little or no English do not have access to.

Another way of motivating students is to tell them about famous people. Motivating the student[s]...I think this is [an] important one. The teacher should tell some story to the students about the everything, maybe about the people, the famous people in order to motivate the students to attract the student in learning. (Alam)

Alam believed that teenagers look up to famous people as role models and that this can be used to motivate students to do their best in their English learning. Alam did not specify what type of famous people he was referring to, but he might have in mind Indonesians who had made a name for themselves at the regional or global levels because of their excellent English skills. These might include film stars, singers, politicians, entrepreneurs, athletes, journalists, academics, scientists, researchers, and even students.

Other teachers were of the opinion that IETs could motivate their students by showing their enthusiasm, eagerness, and optimism in teaching. They believed that IETs can radiate these traits by being ‘active’, ‘energetic’, and ‘highly motivated’. Professional teachers are those who are enthusiastic about what they do. Their being active, energetic or highly motivated in teaching their classes may motivate their students to be equally enthusiastic in learning English.

A related disposition to being motivational is being persuasive. The teachers believed that IETs’ persuasiveness with students could make a real difference in students’ motivation to study generally and to learn English in particular.

We [should] respect them (students) through our individual approach. This is how I approach my students to encourage them to participate in the lessons. (Amir)
As a teacher, Amir wants all his students to take part in his lessons. However, he is aware that some students might not be as interested as others in learning English. In his view, he is responsible for motivating them, but he would not succeed in his efforts unless he showed his students that he respects them. Amir has due regard for students’ feelings, wishes, or rights as individuals. This is why, as he said, he tries to persuade them by using an ‘individual approach’ because this approach means that the teacher really cares about students’ learning. Wawan concurs:

We are teaching by [the] heart. I mean we touch their [students’] hearts to increase their motivation. If they like English, I think they will be more active in learning English.

‘Touching their hearts’ is how Wawan expressed his individual, persuasive approach to raise his students’ motivation. He believes that this ‘heart-to-heart’ approach could change his students’ behaviour and lead to a better attitude to learning English. Wawan could achieve this through, among other things, teacher reinforcement and correction. In both general study and English language learning, students need to know whether they have done and/or said things properly or correctly. When done appropriately, reinforcement can boost students’ self-confidence and sense of achievement, and correction makes students feel that they are being looked after and shown the right way.

Second, it is important for IETs to be communicative. IETs are expected to be willing or eager to impart or exchange information with the people around them. There is a link between communication and human relationships:

Communication is very important….I think it’s the human relationships that must be maintained. (Arie*)

Teacher[s] must share to [with] the other people….the students’ parent[s] or the other people or teacher[s] (Tati)

Arie is of the opinion that by being communicative, IETs allow relationships to develop between them and other people. These relationships are important to maintain particularly because IETs’ business is that of communicating or interacting with other people. Tati further illustrates this by using the word ‘share’ to describe her idea of interpersonal communication or exchange of information. The other people referred to by Tati could include students, students’ parents, and IETs’ own colleagues.
In regard to IETs’ being communicative with their students:

[It] should not only take place in the classroom but also beyond it. When communicating with teachers, students should be free to express their feelings. So teachers and students should feel comfortable with each other. (Yaya*)

Yaya wants to see a kind of “desacralisation” of the contexts in which teachers and students communicate. Indonesian teachers and students tend to interact formally because their communication mostly takes place in the classroom and is carried out for classroom-related purposes. In Yaya’s opinion, IETs should also allow for more interactions to occur outside the classroom, where they can communicate with students in an informal way and perhaps more effectively—even if it is in English. As far as students are concerned, IETs’ communicativeness in this way would benefit students’ second language acquisition.

In terms of IETs’ communication with students’ parents:

If a student doesn’t show up twice in a month, I’ll have a word with the parents. But beforehand, I refuse to see the student because I need to know exactly why the student didn’t come to school. In my experience, many parents thought their children did go to school. (Diana*)

Diana talked about how she worked with parents to deal with students’ absenteeism. Parents are involved because they are sometimes unaware of their child’s problem. Without the concerned teacher’s communicativeness, they may not be informed of what has happened. Diana’s example might not be an ideal one for showcasing teacher-parent communication. However, it does represent a part of a whole range of issues on the basis of which teachers should communicate with parents.

In regard to IETs’ being communicative with their colleagues, Amir said:

Sometimes they (teachers) are good, but they don’t have any [a] good relationship between them because maybe…they have different characteristics. Maybe, when we [they] want to discuss everything…[e.g.] the school programs, sometimes no-one is right….There is no good communication with [among] them (teachers).

Amir’s statement is like a criticism to his own colleagues’ lack of communication. However, he implied an ideal vision for IETs as willingness to communicate with their fellow teachers.

Third, IETs should be dedicated to and love teaching; they should be devoted to the task or purpose of teaching English to their students. Professional IETs should not view their occupation merely as a job but, more importantly, a profession; not just something to keep
them busy but as something they are passionate about. Dedication is seen as something that makes the teaching profession special:

> If a teacher doesn’t have love in teaching it means he just teach[es]. It’s [a] different thing from having love in that profession….If a teacher is living their life as a teacher, they’ll make a big difference in their students’ lives. (Amat)

Being passionate about teaching and the profession seems to be Amat’s conception of teachers’ dedication. He could be mindful of the fact that in spite of all the high expectations placed on IETs, they are faced daily with such problems as lack of school facilities, lack of professional development opportunities, not to mention lack of financial support. Under such circumstances, only those who have a ‘love of teaching’ and who ‘live their lives as teachers’ would be committed to the profession wholeheartedly.

IETs are also challenged by the real problems they have with their students in the classroom on a daily basis:

> Most of my students get sleepy in my classroom because they have to work [the night before]….They are in school until four or three and they have to work outside. Two of my students in the classroom are housemaids….That’s why you have to look cheerful, look well, raise their motivation, make them fun, make them happy. (Neni)

Some of Neni’s SMK students were from villages in the districts outside her city. Coming from poor families, these students stayed in the homes of their relatives or families who hired them as housemaids. They had to work before and after school and do household chores until or after midnight. During the lessons these students often struggled to concentrate due to lack of sleep. According to Neni, dedicated IETs would be understanding of this, try to keep the students motivated and in high spirits, and perhaps, if necessary, modify their instruction to ensure the students learn.

Fourth, IETs should have a commitment to student learning. This commitment is expected to be demonstrated by teachers and students, but teachers have a central role in ensuring that the commitment is upheld. In principle, the teachers’ attitude is that all IETs’ efforts must be directed at ensuring students’ maximum mastery of the knowledge and skills taught.

> As a good teacher[s], we must do our best for students. So we teach them in the best way, fulfil their needs, and so on. (Muchtar)
In Muchtar’s opinion, IETs’ responsibility is to ensure students are able to learn as much as possible. There is an emphasis here that IETs should prioritise student learning, which is vital because what students learn today is preparation for their future.

We must prepare students for their future. We might not be able to do it 100 per cent, but at least we play a part in preparing them for the future. (Diana*)

Everything a teacher does is preparing students for their future. This is especially true for Diana who works in an SMK. Unlike students in other schools, Diana’s students are expected to work straight away after they graduate. Therefore, her teaching must have a direct impact on their learning.

IETs committed to their students’ learning are also expected to use their classroom management skills in ensuring maximum student learning regardless of classroom situations.

Teacher[s] must understand the situation of students. Sometimes…very noisy, and [sometimes] so nice. The teachers have to handle them to be calm [when they are noisy]. (Tati)

To maximise student learning, most teachers would want the classroom situation to be conducive to their instruction or delivery of materials. In reality, however, classes can sometimes become unruly and noisy. A teacher should try their best to handle the situation and return the class to normalcy before commencing again. Otherwise, it can be difficult to achieve maximum student learning. However, according to the teachers, to succeed, IETs should be flexible with different types of students and relate to a student’s learning process.

Additionally, in order to ensure maximum student learning, the teachers believed that IETs should encourage students to be committed to learning as well.

My male students are tough to teach….So we make an agreement…a 3-month teaching-learning contract…signed by the class chairman….As a result, there is no need to quarrel or…debate. I have done this for the past five years and it has an 80 per cent success rate. (Diana*)

According to Diana, who has to deal with predominantly male SMK students learning to become technicians, she is committed to the students’ learning but she also asks for their commitment to learning. A contract of teaching and learning is her way to make students responsible for their own behaviour, their attitudes, and their learning.
8.2.3.2 Commitment to Professional Development

IETs’ commitment to enhancing and building their instructional competencies is considered by the teachers as important. IETs’ commitment to their ongoing learning opportunities is necessary to face the increasingly complex challenges in schools nowadays—from working with various types of students, to developing and using school-based curricula, to using new technology in teaching, to meeting the standards of final national examinations—particularly in regard to Teflindo. These opportunities are embodied in the term professional development. In principle:

...as teachers we should have the ability to develop ourselves and other people (colleagues). If our knowledge is below our students’ knowledge, oh, how can you [we] be a professional teacher[s]? (Asri*)

IETs should have the inner drive to improve their own and their colleagues’ competencies. IETs should keep up with the latest developments in general and specific information to which many students nowadays have the same or even better access. IETs should make this effort individually. Two dispositions are described in the following sections.

a. Being Committed to Self-improvement

The Teflindo profession is very dynamic because it must respond to the constant demand for new approaches, methods, and techniques of EFL teaching. This demand calls for IETs who possess the qualities of self-improvement and who are open to innovations in the field.

He (a teacher) has to be open-minded...[He shouldn’t say] “That’s my style, that’s my personality”. We can’t do that because we have...to see what students are like; to improve with the students’ need[s]...what we are supposed to be doing. (Amat)

How [do we as] the teacher[s] challenge the students, if we are not challenging ourselves? As a teacher[s], how can we encourage students if we don’t encourage ourselves to improve? (Alim)

A good English teacher is one who keeps learning. This is because knowledge never ends and we must try to teach the developing knowledge to our students. (Lexy*)

Amat disagrees with those IETs who maintain the status quo in their teaching or are reluctant to adjust their teaching to their students’ characteristics and learning needs as well as the dynamics of ELT. Their reluctance may be caused by the fear of new ways of doing things or unfamiliar technologies but could be at the expense of their students’ learning. Alim’s point is that if IETs challenge students in terms of instruction, tasks, homework,
projects, and examinations, then it should be fair for IETs to leave their “comfort zone” and embrace change and innovations in EFL teaching. Therefore, IETs must be inclined to improve themselves and use every opportunity to learn. Lexy believed that part of an IET’s job is to impart knowledge to students, and knowledge is something that develops over time. They should keep increasing and expanding their knowledge so that their students will benefit from it.

Three ways for IETs to improve themselves were articulated by the teachers. First, IETs should attend seminars and/or workshops in Teflindo.

Our academic qualifications are not sufficient….It is not enough to have an S1 (undergraduate) or S2 (masters’) qualification only. They (teachers) need to develop themselves professionally. Schools should support teachers. Teachers need to attend workshops or seminars. (Tita*)

In Tita’s opinion, IETs university degrees do not give them everything they need to succeed as professional educators. They need to participate in professional development programs, particularly seminars and/or workshops. Many IETs complained about their lack of financial resources, which can be quite prohibitive. Therefore, government support provided through the schools for IETs to attend the programs would be of much help.

Second, IETs should attend seminars or workshops in other areas of education relevant to Teflindo.

It is not easy to be a good teacher, but at least teachers’ competencies should be developed by sending them to attend training activities, not only about English. (Yaya*)

IETs should be committed to improving themselves through professional development programs on not only EFL teaching methodology but also other relevant areas. Their commitment should be matched by schools or education authorities by providing official—including financial—support.

Third, IETs should be given the chance to learn from their colleagues.

The more experienced they (teachers) are the better. I didn’t know much when I was in the university, but I learned a lot from my work. I learned from my colleagues and I also learned much from teaching, much more than when I was in the university. (Diana*)

Diana believed that when it comes to IETs gaining practical knowledge and skills through teaching, practice does make perfect. To develop professionally, IETs certainly need
to attend seminars or workshops on the relevant topic, yet the experience they gain from colleagues and the teaching process itself, such as through peer observation, is invaluable.

Fourth, whenever possible, IETs should be given the chance to have a short study visit and/or stay abroad in an English-speaking country.

Teachers must be given a lot of experience…to gain knowledge…such as from going and staying abroad. (Tita*)

IETs’ visit or stay in English-speaking countries would enable them to experience for themselves how the language is used in its native setting. Their experience abroad might increase their confidence to use as much English as possible in teaching, which many of them still lack.

b. Being Collegial

IETs are members of the teaching profession in general and of ELT in particular. To succeed in the profession they need to give and/or get support from the other members of the profession. Essentially, this is based on the spirit of solidarity, common responsibility, and—in the teachers’ own words—‘sharing’ among practitioners of the same profession working in the same field of expertise.

Teachers should be sharing with each other so that they can complement each other. (Tiro*)

Tiro believed that certain IETs have strengths in some areas where others have weaknesses. Other IETs might also have access to something that their colleagues do not have access to. Such gaps in knowledge and skills are common among all teachers and are felt to be even more prevalent among IETs: some might be very fluent in English; some might have lived in English speaking countries; some might have attended seminars or workshops more often than others; some have been involved in research activities more than others, and so forth. Colleagues would complement each other if they were inclined to ‘share’ with each other.

For example, Teachers A and B (teach different subjects) [but] both teach the same class, then they need to share information about that class…(e.g.) how good the students are in maths or in language. (Chaya*)
In Chaya’s opinion, it is important for teachers to share with colleagues who teach other subjects any information they have regarding a particular class. Various other things including materials, teaching techniques, and professional development opportunities should also be considered important and shared among IETs. Given the range of IETs’ experiences, capabilities, and expertise, an environment of ‘sharing’ among them seems ideal.

However, other teachers said that, despite its importance, sharing among IETs does not always happen. There are times when IETs do not seem to have this disposition. In the teachers’ opinion, IETs themselves and their professional organisations are to be blamed for the lack of collegiality. Many IETs were said to prefer keeping things to themselves and to be reluctant to take part in activities.

I always try to find fellow teachers who could give me ideas about how to do certain things….[colleagues I could] have a discussion with. (Ismi*)

Ismi was quite enthusiastic about sharing and discussing with her colleagues about teaching methods, for instance, but finding like-minded colleagues was not always easy.

There were also IETs who were not too keen to join activities organised by MGMP. As a government-sanctioned organisation, MGMP technically has all IETs in that district or city as members.

The teachers who join [MGMP activities]…can get some ideas….Some teachers who graduated 15 years ago…not all of them join the upgrading….So you [they] just stay at school, teach what they have got from…[many] years ago through the routine, and that’s it. (Jefri)

Jefri, an IET-activist, said that IETs could learn from the professional development programs held by MGMPs. However, some IETs were reluctant to take part in activities, thinking that their undergraduate qualifications were sufficient. Such lack of interest may weaken the organisations’ potential for strengthening collegiality.

In cases where IETs’ professional organisations were to blame for lack of collegiality, the problem was said to lie in their poor management.

We have the MGMP, but it is not that active, and I never join [the activities]….The management is poor and many teachers are left out. We need an organisation where we can meet and share so that we can become more professional English teachers. (Rina*)
In Rina’s case, the MGMP’s activities were virtually unknown and attended by only a few people. It seems that Rina’s MGMP has failed to develop professional collegiality among IETs in her region.

In other places, MGMP was also criticised for its failure to foster social solidarity among its members.

Let’s compare teachers to doctors. They have organisations. When one of the doctor[s] has a problem they will defend him/her together…How about teacher organisation[s]? They don’t care…[We need] a professional organisation. We need it, not only for talking about…professional teaching, but also the social relationship. (Mulia)

Collegiality among IETs should not be confined to professional development activities. It should also include social solidarity among fellow practitioners which has been so successful in other professional organisations. Mulia’s statement seems to suggest that MGMP, in her city at least, extend the scope of its activities to social solidarity as an expression of IETs’ collegiality.

8.3 Analytical Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ dispositions. Overall, the teachers’ perspectives cover a wide range of IETs’ dispositions based on two important aspects, personality dispositions and professional dispositions.

Personality Dispositions. In this analytical conclusion, personality dispositions are described further into two dimensions, each comprises of a number of traits, which will be discussed in the ensuing paragraphs. Implicitly or explicitly, the traits categorised mentioned are, to a large extent, comparable to those discussed in the literature review, namely “teachers’ personality traits” (Murray et al. 1990; Rushton et al. 2007), “good”, “outstanding”, or “effective” teacher characteristics (Beishuizen et al. 2001; Liando, 2006, 2010; Sockett, 2006; Stewart, 2006; Stronge, 2002), and Indonesian “English teacher professionalism” (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010), and “moral dimension of teaching” (e.g. Ornstein, 1995; Stewart, 2006; Schwartz, 2007; Osguthorpe, 2008).

The first dimension of personality dispositions relates to the teachers’ perspectives on their innate, ideal characteristics. The teachers articulated eight specific personality traits...
concerned with the notion: *What should I be like as a person to become an effective IET?*

These are basic personality traits, conviviality, self-restraint, integrity, care, resourcefulness, discipline, and presentability.

The second dimension of the personality dispositions consists of the teachers’ perspectives on how they are perceived as role models for and/or by students. Specifically, the teachers articulated dispositions concerning IETs’ being their students’ role models in regard to character and English learning and use. The notion: *What exemplary behaviours should I exhibit to become an effective IET?* is the tenet of this dimension.

In terms of IETs being character role models for students, the teachers’ perspectives are to some extent thematically similar to those categorised into the first dimension above. That is, they mainly relate to what the teachers referred to as teachers’ “good behaviour, attitudes, and personality”.

The teachers’ perspectives on ETs being EL learning and use role models for their students might relate to wholly or partially to Krashen’s (1982) “input”, which is echoed by e.g. Mangubhai (2006) and Renandya (2013), and “teacher talk” (Walsh, 2002) in the literature. The points made by the teachers in this regard are similar to the message in the following statement:

> We should strive to use more English in the classroom as in many EFL classrooms, teacher talk often serves as the main source of language input. We should use language that is pitched at the right level, and that is rich enough to expose students to a full range of features commonly observed in authentic communicative settings.

Renandya (2013, p. 2)

There seems to be nothing uniquely Indonesian here as the core of the teachers’ perspective discussed is recognised widely in the literature (theory and practice).

The second aspect is professional dispositions, which are described as the qualities displayed by IETs to show their commitment to teaching professionally and professional development. Based on the dispositions articulated by the teachers, teaching professionally means that IETs are inclined to “go the extra miles” in teaching, having demonstrated all the other dispositions, to ensure student learning. The combined individual and collective efforts reflect the notion: *What should I be like to be thoroughly professional as an IET?* The teachers’ perspectives on the above notion are established in the literature.
The commitment to teaching professionally is expressed as “traits of effective teachers” (Polk, 2006). As shown in section 3.7.3.2 in Chapter 3, these traits are demanded by Richards (2010) with his eleven questions regarding what teachers should be like. Sockett (2006, p. 23) offers his philosophical answer to Richards’ questions, and defines teachers as having the dispositions of character, intellect, and care.

The commitment to professional development is established in the literature. For example, it is referred to as “collaboration” by Richards (2010, p. 118). As discussed in section 3.7.3.2 in Chapter 3, Richards (2010) describes it as collaboration with fellow teachers, with university colleagues, and with others in the school.

This chapter concludes the presentation of the analysis of the teachers’ perspectives. The final chapter presents a discussion of all the perspectives and concludes the thesis.
Chapter 9

Discussion and Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

This chapter draws together the findings of the study to reach conclusions. It also discusses the limitations, offers recommendations for policy initiatives and theoretical implications, and makes suggestions for further studies. To begin with, a brief description of the study is presented in order to set the scene for the discussion in the ensuing sections.

9.2 The Study

This study aimed to investigate IETs’ perspectives on PTS in general and for IETs in particular, namely, SKAKG 2007, in the context of the PSG in Indonesia. It has drawn on literature on PTS and LTC as its theoretical framework.

The reviewed literature led to the construction of a central research question and six subsidiary research questions. The central question is: Are IETs capable of articulating their perspectives on crucial issues related to teacher professionalisation efforts and IET competencies that are recognised in the literature on SME and LTC theory? The subsidiary questions are:

1. What are the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation efforts in Indonesia?
2. Are the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT?
3. Are there any elements in the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation that are unique to the Indonesian context?
4. What perspectives are the teachers able to articulate about IET competencies?
5. Are the teachers’ perspectives on IET competencies relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT?
6. Are there any elements in the teachers’ perspectives on IET competencies that are unique to the Indonesian context?
I have described in Chapter 2 the contextual background of PSG as a part of Indonesia’s national education reforms. In Chapter 3, I discussed how SME has inspired the development of PTS worldwide as well as in Indonesia, particularly with the enactment of SKAKG 2007 as one of the legal documents for the implementation of PSG. Then, having pointed out the lack of teacher input and subject-specification in SKAKG 2007 compared to those produced elsewhere, I have also justified in Chapter 3 the use of LTC as the theoretical framework for this study. The body of literature on SME generally and in ELT, as well as LTC theory, has provided me with guidance in my endeavour to “give IETs their voices” regarding two main issues, namely the Government’s teacher professionalisation efforts and the ideal, subject-specific PTS for Teflindo in the context of PSG in Indonesia.

As described in Chapter 4, I generated data from 66 teacher respondents in the Indonesian cities of Makassar, Padang, and Malang using interviews and focus groups. I also interviewed 29 key informants in the three cities and another 3 in the capital Jakarta. A qualitative approach was employed to analyse the data obtained from the two methods. The data generation was guided by all the research questions. I have also presented the results of the data analysis in Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 based on the four themes emerging from the teachers’ perspectives.

In the following sections, I will discuss the findings by addressing the research questions and by highlighting the key findings, substantiating them with the relevant literature or describing them in reference to the contextual situations.

### 9.3 Discussion

The discussion here is focused on the key findings from each of the four chapters and how they relate to the theoretical, practical, or contextual point of view.

The aim of this study was to obtain the teachers’ perspectives on two issues pertaining to the implementation of PTS in PSG. The first issue is based on the proposition that the teachers should be capable of articulating their appraisals of the Government’s policies on teacher professionalisation efforts. The second issue is based on the proposition that the teachers should be capable of articulating their own ideal, subject-specific “standards” for
teacher (IET) competencies—an opportunity they were denied during the development of 
SKAKG 2007. Both of these propositions are based on LTC theory in that their appraisals 
and standards are their cognitive representation of the professionalisation efforts and the 
ideal, subject-specific standards.

Referring to the elements and processes in LTC in Borg’s (2006b) LTC diagram (see 
Figure 3.2), the appraisals and standards articulated by the teachers are their perspectives, 
that is, their “[b]eliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, 
thinking, and decision-making” (Borg, 2006b, p. 283) about:

(1) The Government's teacher professionalisation efforts. These may be regarded as the 
“context” of teachers’ professional practice. “Context” is quoted from Borg’s (2006b) 
conception of the aspects that language teachers have cognitions about, which include 
“teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, 
self, colleagues, assessment, context” (p.283). They are regarded in this present study 
as context because language teachers’ professional practice occurs within and is 
affected positively and/or negatively by their implementation.

(2) The ideal, subject-specific standards for Teflindo, which are “defined by the interaction 
of cognitions and contextual factors”. Borg (2006b) implies that the interaction, which 
may give rise to teachers’ capability to articulate the ideal, subject-specific standards 
for Teflindo, occurs “around and inside the classroom” (p.283). Thus, the teachers’ 
ideal, subject-specific standards for Teflindo are essentially their context-based 
cognitions. These standards describe the teachers’ “consensus model[s] of what is 
most worthy and desirable to achieve in teaching knowledge and practice” (Kleinhenz 
& Ingvarson, 2007).

Therefore, the teachers’ perspectives discussed here are categorised as appraisals 
and standards. The appraisals have been presented in Chapter 5 (teacher 
professionalisation) and the subject-specific standards for Teflindo (henceforth: the teachers’ 
standards) were presented in Chapters 6 (teacher knowledge), 7 (skills), and 8 
(dispositions). This information is summarised in Table 9.1.
9.3.1 The Teachers’ Appraisals: Professionalisation Efforts

This section addresses research questions 1, 2, and 3. These questions are addressed individually in the ensuing sections.

9.3.1.1 Research Question 1: What are the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation efforts in Indonesia?

The teachers were able to articulate their perspectives on teacher professionalisation efforts in Indonesia. The perspectives are categorised into seven themes and seventeen sub-themes (see Table 5.1 for details). They range from the professional status of teaching/Teflindo to qualifications for IET recruitment. The sub-themes are further categorised in this chapter into three topics, namely teacher professionalism, professional teaching standards, and teacher certification.

9.3.1.2 Research Question 2: Are the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT?

a. Teacher Professionalism

Teacher professionalism is the theme of the teachers’ perspective on the status of teaching (i.e. Teflindo) as a profession and of teachers (IETs) as professionals. The teachers believed that teaching/Teflindo and teachers/IETs deserve professional status because they: (1) educate, rather than just teach the materials to students; (2) are required to have qualifications and competencies; (3) are involved in continuous professional development; (4) serve other people (i.e. students and the community); and (5) have professional organisations.

Table 9.1 Categories of the teachers’ perspectives in general

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Teacher Appraisals of Professionalisation (in Chapter 5)</th>
<th>Teacher Standards of Competencies (in Chapters 6, 7, 8)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Teacher professionalism</td>
<td>1. Teacher knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Professional teaching standards</td>
<td>2. Teacher skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Professional certification</td>
<td>3. Teacher dispositions</td>
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The five reasons are based on categories emerging from data. They are a combination of the teachers’ informed-knowledge, values, experience, common sense, self-criticism, expectations, and hope regarding teacher professionalism. Thus, teaching shares the characteristics of other occupations that have long been recognised as professions such as architects, engineers, and discipline specialists (cf. U.S. Department of Labor, 2012). Additionally, according to Rowan (1994), teaching is no less complex than the other occupations and deserves professional status. Rowan’s statement is applicable to Teflindo in particular. The fact that the subject matter taught by IETs is a foreign language makes the occupation even more complex as they ought to be professionally qualified and professionally competent in the target language and in teaching it.

The teachers’ five criteria are in line with the views in the literature regarding the profession. As mentioned in Chapter 3, Tichenor and Tichenor (2005) cite Sockett’s (1993) five categories of professionalism to confirm their teachers-respondents’ views about teaching as a profession, and Nunan (2001) encourages ELT professionals to commit to meeting his proposed four criteria of a profession to enable the ELT profession to gain the recognition it so deserves. Besides these categories and criteria, the teachers shared the Government’s vision of teacher professionalisation as contained in UU Sisdiknas 2003 and UUGD 2005. This can be described as an interplay of “independent professionalism” and “institutionally prescribed professionalism” (Leung, 2009, cited in Richards, 2010, p. 119).

Notwithstanding, as shown in sections 5.2.1.2 and 5.2.1.3, the teachers were also aware that many IETs still found professionalism a difficult concept to realise in their work. They are still plagued by such problems as lack of financial welfare, lack of competencies, lack of cooperation, and lack of access to professional development activities. However, for many of the teachers these problems are not excuses for not trying to be professional. A study of IETs’ perception of professionalism conducted by Yuwono and Harbon (2010) in Salatiga, Central Java, Indonesia, discovered a similar idealistic, selfless, and optimistic view of the profession. As this study shows, in the teachers’ minds, “teacher professionalism” is an intrinsic part of their occupation. Professionalism is a characteristic of their occupation.
and improving it is in their best interests as Indonesian teaching professionals whether or not there is a conscious effort from the Government to professionalise teachers.

b. Professional Teaching Standards (PTS)

As discussed in Chapter 3, PTS such as SKAKG 2007 have two main characteristics. First, PTS are basic references for implementing professionalisation efforts. Stated in written form in a standards document, PTS stipulate standards statements for teachers’ minimum qualification and/or competencies. Second, PTS can be applied for regulatory and/or developmental purposes in regard to what qualifications teachers should have and/or what they should know, be able to do, and be like for the purposes of licensing (registration) and certification (recognition). PTS can also be used for reflecting on or improving teaching practices (teaching competencies), a voluntary process within or without a teacher certification system. As described in section 5.2.2, the teachers’ appraisals regarding PTS are as follows:

- ‘The idea of PTS development should be welcomed by IETs’

The majority of the teachers welcomed the idea of PTS in a document that standardises their professional practice (see section 5.2.2.1). They were very enthusiastic about SKAKG 2007 and other PTS documents for language teachers from various countries which I showed them during our interviews. Many of them admitted that they had never heard of, let alone seen, such documents—not even SKAKG 2007 itself, and asked me to allow them to photocopy some or all the documents which I could not afford to refuse. They seemed quite fascinated by how their professional competencies were put in writing.

In regard to SKAKG 2007, perhaps because of fascination with its contents and given its official status as Permendiknas (Minister of National Education Regulation), the teachers seemed to accept its regulatory characteristics as a PTS document being used in PSG, which is regulatory in nature. This seems to be typical of Indonesian teachers, most of whom are Government employees with a civil servant (PNS) status, who think that they should obey all Government regulations and support Government programs. However, as shown in
the next sections, this is not to say that they are not capable of assessing the other aspects of SKAKG 2007 from constructive, critical points of view.

- ‘Teflindo as a profession needs to have its own PTS’

The teachers were able to identify the merits of PTS, notwithstanding their unfamiliarity with them, and supported the idea that the Teflindo profession develop its own PTS in the light of SKAKG. (See section 5.2.2.1.)

The support is based on their beliefs that a PTS document: (1) contains the criteria for good practice; (2) helps teachers improve their competencies; (3) helps teachers maintain their quality; (4) provides references for teacher assessment; (5) benefits professional development programs such as official teacher training sessions, self-improvement, self-reflection, and professional accountability; (6) guides teacher education and recruitment; (7) informs teacher competency development initiatives through tests and assessments; and (8) is developed by taking the Indonesian circumstances into account.

However, as described in section 5.2.2.2, some of the teachers were a bit cautious that PTS might restrict their creativity and ignore the uniqueness of the local society, school, and teachers. These comments were brought up by several teachers during the focus group in Malang. Nonetheless, they also said that this would not happen if teachers had a greater degree of involvement in PTS development as they could have a say about what standards should go into it, and that, if done otherwise, PTS could become “external standards” (Porter, 1989).

This finding points to two important facts. First, the teachers were able to see the potential of using a PTS document such as SKAKG 2007 for professional developmental purposes, despite its regulatory characteristics. Second, they were quite visionary in terms of the real actions that Teflindo the profession and TEFLIN the professional organisation need to take “to regulate itself” (Mowbray, 2005).

The teachers’ positive attitudes towards PTS are a potential that a large professional organisation such as TEFLIN needs to be aware of and tap into, if only it could be more proactive in its efforts. As a community, IETs were described by one key informant at BSNP in Jakarta as “unorganised” and by another one in Padang as “not as strong as members of
other professional organisations in Indonesia, and certainly not as strong as members of teacher organisations overseas”. Judging by the absence of initiative from TEFLIN to start a real and meaningful debate about developing specific PTS for IETs, I find it hard to disagree with such comments.

- ‘Teacher qualification requirements in SKAKG 2007 are sufficient but some additional requirements must be considered’

As shown in section 5.2.7, the teachers were overwhelmingly supportive of the \( S1/D4 \) qualification requirements for all Indonesian teachers stipulated in the first half of SKAKG 2007. As stated in Chapters 2 and 3, this requirement applies to all teacher candidates who apply for teaching positions and to in-service teachers lodging their teacher certification (PSG) applications.

To improve the requirements in the future, however, they also suggested that some additional requirements be considered. For pre-service teachers, these include successful completion of a 1-year apprenticeship as well as tests of EL proficiency and teaching performance. For in-service teachers, they include tests of EL proficiency and teaching performance, and a master’s degree—especially for those teaching in international-standard schools.

This finding suggests that the teachers’ conception of teacher quality improvement is based on their beliefs about the importance of qualification, experience, and assessment—three of the many hallmarks of teacher quality described in the literature, notably by Darling-Hammond (2000), Gere and Berebitsky (2009), Ingvarson and Rowe (2008), Rice (2003), and SKAKG 2007.

- ‘PTS for IETs should have standards for affective, sociocultural, and ELT aspects’

As described in section 5.2.3.1, the teachers were able to identify some weaknesses of the two-sentence Subject Teachers’ Competency standards for IETs in SKAKG 2007. (See competency Pro1 number 18.1.a–b in Appendix 1.) The two standards statements have two different focuses but they have exactly the same elements. The first statement focuses on the linguistic knowledge aspect that IETs are obliged to have, and the second one focuses
on the communicative competencies that IETs are required to possess. The main weaknesses in these two standards, in the teachers’ opinions, are the lack of affective and socio-cultural aspects, and the lack of subject-specification.

This finding indicates that in terms of the competency aspect, which will be elaborated in the next section, the teachers have some understanding of the wider dimensions of what is termed by Andrews (2001, 2003a) as “language awareness”, which was sidelined by SKAKG 2007 developers. It also implies that the two standards for IETs need to be further developed. A key informant, who was a prominent figure in TEFLIN and had been involved in PTS development processes at BSNP, told me that this situation presents TEFLIN and/or other IET professional organisations in Indonesia with the momentum to begin the move towards developing Teflindo-specific PTS and to elaborate and/or supplement those already stated in SKAKG 2007.

- ‘Teflindo-specific PTS must be developed with input from IETs and other parties’

The teachers believed that many parties, IETs included, should be involved in the development of PTS for IETs in the future. In order to give IETs their voices, they said that IETs or their representatives should be given the chance to take part, along with teacher educators and teacher trainers, teacher education/training institutions, schools (i.e. students and principals), educational stakeholders (e.g. members of the public and ‘users’ of ELT graduates), and lawmakers. (See section 5.2.5.)

The fact that the teachers demanded IETs’ authorship and ownership of the future Teflindo-specific PTS, demonstrates that they shared the view that the profession articulate what it is that is valued in the practice of the profession through standards (Liddicoat, 2006a, p. 5), the development of which needs teacher involvement (Abdal-Haqq, 1995). As discussed in Chapter 3, this view was also shared by the developers of PTS documents in other countries in which teachers or their representatives were involved. Referring to the notion of decentralisation (see section 2.2) as one of the four major educational reforms in Indonesia, this may also indicate the teachers’ demand for a decentralised approach in educational policy making, including PTS development.
c. Teacher Certification (PSG)

According to the teachers, there were certain aspects of the PSG routes that were generic in nature due to PSG being applied to all teachers but with inadequate attention to the subjects or levels of education the teachers teach. As shown in section 5.2.6, they thought that in the future implementation of PSG, these aspects need to be improved with subject- or level-specific criteria and certification processes. Nevertheless, many of them were quite aware that even with its current generic characteristics, PSG has put many teachers under a lot of pressure. IETs’ varying backgrounds and competencies have made, and continue to make, it difficult for some of them to succeed in getting certified.

However, as described in section 5.2.6.1, an overwhelming majority of the teachers communicated the idea that IETs should be certified through a teacher certification process based on Teflindo-specific PTS. They implied that the implementation of certification of this kind benefits the Teflindo profession because the use of the Teflindo-specific PTS document would do justice to their specific professional practice which they had worked so hard to qualify for and be competent in.

Specifically, the teachers believed that Teflindo-specific PSG would benefit the credentialing processes of IETs—and certainly other subject teachers—in two ways. First, Teflindo-specific PTS for PSG are good for teacher recruitment purposes as the academic qualification and competencies become clear for both the recruiters (e.g. local government agencies in charge of teacher recruitment in Indonesia) and the applicants (i.e. pre-service teachers graduating from Pre-Service Education programs. Second, Teflindo-specific PTS for PSG would give the Teflindo profession a guide for professional development processes such as classroom observation and other quality assurance instruments. Such instruments could then be used by officials with ELT backgrounds to observe or assess IETs during PSG. They could also be used in IET education programs to train future IETs. Nevertheless, some teachers stressed the need to anticipate the negative possibilities, such as IETs not meeting the standards, the cost and energy associated with developing standards, and the corrupt practices that give rise to leniency. These problems could challenge the Teflindo community and undermine the integrity of PSG.
This finding shows that the teachers were capable of establishing the important link between Teflindo-specific PTS and Teflindo-specific teacher credentialing programs (PSG), as opposed to generic ones. Expressing their view in the regulatory context of PTS and certification, the teachers echoed the notion that standards and certification are “a conceptual pair” (Louden, 2000), which, in Indonesia, is represented by SKAKG 2007 and PSG. The teachers’ view also gave a hint about the potential of using PTS for developmental purposes, something not acknowledged in SKAKG 2007 but addressed by Jalal et al. (2009, p. 51) who discuss the potential use of SKAKG 2007 to underpin future reforms in teacher education.

An overwhelming majority of the teachers articulated views about qualifications that were in line with the four major components regarding EL teachers’ qualifications in the list of international PTS for EL teachers (see Appendix 27). They also had ideas about the professional status of EL teaching and professionalisation efforts in ELT such as the development of PTS for IETs and the certification of IETs. These issues were not addressed in most of the PTS documents referred to in developing the list.

The only requirement for IETs that the teachers failed to mention explicitly here is “experience in learning a community (another) language” (sub-component A2.2 in Appendix 27). However, this requirement originated from PTS documents produced in countries where EL teachers teach ESOL or ESL to students from non-English-speaking backgrounds. In such countries, as noted by E.M. Ellis (2003, p. 15), ESOL/ESL teachers often have no experience in learning or are not required to be proficient in a second language themselves. The teachers in the present study might not consider this an issue for them because, having learned English since attending junior high school generally, they did have the experience in learning and the proficiency in a second language, which is EFL.

In summary, the teachers have illustrated how teacher professionalisation efforts have affected them, for better or worse, in the last ten years or so. In general, they were very passionate about teaching and Teflindo being recognised as a profession and themselves being recognised as professionals. They accepted with open arms the presence of SKAKG 2007 as an official PTS document regulating their profession and their participation in the
PSG. However, they were keen to see SKAKG 2007 improved in the future with substantial teacher input and inclusion of more detailed subject-specific PTS for the school subjects, especially EL. Finally, with an understanding that a regulatory PTS document such as SKAKG 2007 is designed to regulate all credentialing efforts (licensure and certification), the teachers believed that PSG must be made subject specific. This would only be possible with a subject-specific PTS document.

9.3.1.3 Research Question 3: Are there any elements in the teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalisation that are unique to the Indonesian context?

The following four points (a, b, c, d) were found to be either unique to the Indonesian context or in need of an explanation on the basis of the local circumstances in Indonesia.

a. Professionalism

The teachers’ perspectives on teacher professionalism here emphasise the importance of the following aspects:

(1) The distinction between mengajar (teaching, delivering materials) and mendidik (instilling moral, character, and showing exemplary behaviour). While the translation of the former is standard, the translation of the latter by many teachers is “educating”. Indeed, both mengajar and mendidik were conceptualised by the teachers and are perceived by many people in Indonesia as a noble duty of any teacher. Compared to the literature, nowhere else is such a distinction made and emphasised so strongly.

(2) The need to ensure that teachers are properly remunerated. Remuneration does not seem to be an issue in all the LTC studies reviewed and is not addressed in all the PTS documents reviewed for this study. However, it is addressed in Indonesia’s Law No. 14 Year 2005 on Teachers and Lecturers (UUGD 2005), in which five consecutive articles are devoted to addressing teacher remuneration. Indonesian teachers’ salaries are relatively low compared to those in the neighbouring countries and the developing world (Jalal et al., 2008; see section 2.3.2.2). The message sent by the
teachers’ perspectives here is that improved professionalism is likely to occur only when remuneration is significantly improved.

b. PTS Development

The teachers’ perspectives on whether PTS in the Indonesian education are necessary are unique because of the following points:

(1) According to some of the teachers, PTS should not be used as a means of judging IETs negatively and that PTS should only be used as a reflection tool. While such an expectation is also recognised in the implementation of PTS documents around the world, this finding is interesting in that it shows how important face-saving is for Indonesians personally, culturally, and professionally;

(2) One of the teachers thought that SKAKG 2007 had been made by experts who should know more and better than she did. This finding could be unique to this particular teacher and may not reflect the views of the other teachers. However, it is interesting since it describes her high, unquestioning respect for those in authority. Such attitude was highly expected of Indonesians during the authoritarian rule of President Soeharto and is apparently still shown by many people even today. To expect thoughtful and critical input from such individuals would be a little challenging;

(3) In developing PTS documents, members of the public, students’ parents, and the industry should be involved. This finding shows that the teachers are in favour of the participation of both “intra-profession” (internal) and “extra-profession” (external) parties in the development of PTS. If, one day, this idea materialises, the end product would be one conceptualised by the most parties, compared to the ones reviewed in the literature. One wonders how efficient the development process would be and how much it would cost.

c. Subject-specific PTS for PSG

The teachers’ perspectives on the formulation of subject-specific PTS for the implementation of PSG found to be unique to the Indonesian situation are as follows:
(1) Subject-specific PTS would mean nothing to the profession if corrupt practices in the implementation of PSG continue unabated. One should wonder why the teachers were simply criticising the practices and not pushing for the profession and the government to take firm action against these practices, which have clearly tarnished the image of the profession and undermined the credibility of PSG;

(2) The level of awareness and welfare of IETs must be improved to make subject-specific PTS meaningful to the profession. This perspective is interesting because it implies that no matter how specific the PTS for IETs are, if IETs in general are not well informed about them and their welfare does not improve as a result of subject-specific PTS implementation, then one should wonder what the purpose of all the effort is.

d. Academic Qualification

In terms of academic qualification for IETs, the teachers’ perspectives were worthy of a closer look due to the following three additional recommended requirements:

(1) Candidates IETs with S1/D4 qualification must be required to pass a “fit and proper” test, including EL proficiency test, ELT competency test, and observed micro-teaching;

(2) Candidates IETs recruited for teaching in an international-standard school (the now defunct SBI or RSBI) must be required to have a master’s degree in ELT; and

(3) Candidates’ first and second degrees must be in the same field or discipline. This is known in Indonesia as the linieritas (‘alignment’) of one’s academic qualifications and degrees.

The three points above imply that the teachers were advocating a more competitive “entry strategy” for the recruitment of pre-service IETs and “retention strategy” for the certification of in-service IETs. It is not terribly clear, however, if they also implied an “exit strategy” (to meet the “hire and fire” principle). Either this did not occur to the teachers or they were too polite to articulate it.
9.3.2 The Teachers’ Standards: IET Competencies

This section addresses subsidiary research questions 4, 5, and 6. These questions are addressed individually in the ensuing sections.

9.3.2.1 Research Question 4: What perspectives are the teachers able to articulate about IET competencies?

The teachers were able to articulate their perspectives on IETs’ competencies (competency standards) which are categorised into seven themes and seventeen sub-themes (see Table 5.1 for details). They range from the professional status of teaching/Teflindo to qualifications for IET recruitment. The sub-themes are further categorised in this chapter into three topics, namely teacher professionalism, professional teaching standards, and teacher certification.

9.3.2.2 Research Question 5: Are the teachers’ perspectives on IET competencies relevant to the theories and practice and/or context of ELT?

The teachers’ competency standards are grouped into three themes, namely teacher knowledge, skills, and dispositions. As described in Chapter 6, these themes are generally in line with the categories of PTS in the reviewed literature, e.g. NSWIT (2010), PSPL (2012), ACTA (2006), TDA (2007), and NBPTS (2010). They are also mentioned in Kirby and Crawford (2012, pp. 14–15), and, to a certain extent, can be inferred from the principles of LTC theory (e.g. Borg, 2006b, p. 283; Woods, 1996).

a. Teacher Knowledge

Teacher knowledge is the theme of the teachers’ perspectives on what IETs should know as professional EFL teachers. They believed that IETs must have knowledge of: (1) English and the related subject matters; (2) EFL curricular matters; (3) ELT methodology; (4) non-EFL subject matter; and (5) students’ characteristics. As discussed in the following sections, these components reflect the aspects of “the teacher-learner, the social context, and the
pedagogical process” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 406; emphasis in original) that need to be paid attention to, especially in IET education.

However, unlike Freeman and Johnson who describe ESOL teachers in particular as “learners of language teaching” rather than as “learners of language”, I argue that in the context of this study, IETs—being non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs)—should be seen both as learners of language and learners of language teaching. Their learning process is much more complex than that of native English speaker teachers (NESTs) as they must learn to be proficient in both English and how to teach it.

Seen from the point of view of ELT standards, e.g. in Brown (2007a, 2007b), Harmer (2007a, 2007b), Ur (1996), TESOL (2008), Australian Association for the Teaching of English, Australian Literacy Educators’ Association, Department of Training and Education of Victoria, and Education Department of Western Australia (AATE, ALEA, DETV, EDWA) (2002), Kennedy (2000), and Liddicoat (2006a), the teachers’ perspectives reveal their comprehensive understanding or knowledge of “best practice” in Teflindo at primary and secondary schools. The three major influences suggested by LTC theory seem to have also played an important role in shaping the teachers’ perspectives in this area. The teachers’ perspectives are discussed in the next sections.

- Knowledge of English and Related Subject Matters
As shown in section 6.2.1.1, the teachers believed that IETs’ knowledge of the various aspects of English is essential because English is their “subject-matter knowledge” (Carter, 1990, p. 292). Their views echo those made by the authors in Trappes-Lomax and Ferguson (2002) whose vision was that developing the knowledge about language should be a core goal in language teacher education (see also Watanabe, 2004, p. 350). In general education, this is in line with the assertion by Grossman et al. (2005, p. 201) that teachers should possess deep knowledge of the subject they teach, and with the findings from a study by Metzler and Woessmann (2010) which show that teachers’ subject knowledge exerts a statistically and quantitatively significant impact on students’ achievement. For the teachers, the subject knowledge includes English grammar and vocabulary, English linguistics and its
sub-disciplines, English literature, culture(s) of English-speaking countries and CCU, as well as the history of English.

The reason lies mainly in the fact that IETs are non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs). Unlike native English speaker teachers (NESTs), to whom English is “an accident of birth and geography”, for IETs it is a language that they “learned as content” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 404) and that they have learned it in the same way as their learners (E. M. Ellis, 2006). Thus, IETs’ experience of learning English might have an influence: (1) on their views about the main components of English knowledge that they learned during their professional coursework, and (2) on their teaching practice in the classroom.

The subject-matter and related knowledge mentioned above are further discussed below under two headings.

“Structural English”
I use the term “structural English” to describe the teachers’ statements concerning IETs’ knowledge about English grammar, vocabulary, linguistics, and the subfields of linguistics. (See sections 6.2.1.1–6.2.1.3.) These are regarded as the primary components of English knowledge that IETs need to have. Even though this knowledge reflects the main curricular components of IETs’ professional coursework and the teachers might have it in their minds, in general, this result confirms what has been stated in studies about what language teachers need to know, notably Fillmore and Snow (2000) in regards to knowledge about language and linguistics, sociolinguistics, and language development.

Specifically, this result is in line with three areas in the literature. First, the teachers’ views about grammar knowledge relates to the view about the centrality of grammar teaching in language education (Borg, 1998). This view correlates with some of the principles of instructed language teaching (R. Ellis, 2005) and the “insights” about the teaching of language particularly those on form-focused teaching (Mangubhai, 2006). Second, their views about vocabulary knowledge are in line with Fillmore and Snow’s (2000, pp. 17–19) assertion about the need for language teachers to know about lexicon in the teaching of vocabulary. Third, their views about linguistics knowledge affirm the close connection
between linguistics and its sub-fields on the one hand and the field of language teaching on
the other as stated quite a while ago by Halliday et al. (1964) and Wilkins (1974).

“Cultural English”
Viewed by the teachers as the secondary component of English knowledge, “cultural
English” is the term I use in reference to the teachers’ statements regarding IETs’ knowledge
about English literature, culture of native English speakers, CCU, and the history of English
(see sections 6.2.1.4–6.2.1.7). I have deliberately included English literature in this category
because I believe that literature is a part of culture and society; it is an artistic way of
revealing things about, or an expression of, culture and society. Again, the teachers’
perspectives here might have been informed by their professional education experience.

Nevertheless, the need for EFL learners to have some understanding of the cultural,
literary, and historical aspects of English has been emphasised by several authors. For
example, the teachers’ views about knowledge of literature in its relationship with language
education has been advocated especially by Short and Candlin (1986), McKay (1986), and
Kachru (1986). Their views about knowledge of culture echo those made in recent studies,
such as Nault (2006) who developed a new course called Commonwealth Studies to teach
EL culture to his Korean students. (Nault’s course comprised the cultures of America,
Canada, and the former British colonies.) Prior to this, a number of authors, e.g. Byram and
Feng (2004) had reviewed the relevant literature and come to the conclusion that teaching of
cultural knowledge needs to be incorporated in language teaching. More recent publications,
e.g. Shemshadsara (2012), have also stressed the importance of cultural awareness and
culture teaching in the foreign language education setting.

- **Knowledge of EFL Curricular Matters**
As shown in section 6.2.2, the teachers’ standards statements regarding IETs’ knowledge of
EFL curricular components are: (1) EL curriculum (2) EL syllabus, (3) lesson plans, and (4)
materials. These curricular matters need to be understood in the context of the current
application of KTSP.
The decentralised KTSP system is different from the centralised curriculum that characterised the pre-Reform Movement era, during which teachers were simply applying national curricula. In the current system, schools develop their own curricula on the basis of the Standar Isi [Content Standards] document that, like SKAKG 2007, is developed by BSNP and used all over Indonesia. IETs in one school are collectively responsible for developing their own school’s EL syllabus, choosing or making the materials, and even constructing the lesson plan for each lesson.

Therefore, IETs are generally aware of the contents of KTSP and materials as it can be assumed that they have been involved in their development or decision to choose or use them. This gives them an understanding about the curricular components, i.e. the Government's Content Standards being the main reference for developing their schools’ curriculum for all the subjects offered, the school curriculum itself being the reference for developing and making decisions about other curricular components, the EL syllabus being the guide for teaching EL at a certain grade for a semester or a year, the lesson plans being the documents in which the plan for each lesson is laid out, and the materials being the means for classroom instruction to achieve the curricular goal, namely, students’ proficiency in the target language skills.

This finding shows that the teachers have an understanding of the vital importance of having clear goals in teaching. The goals are contained in the curricular components that they must be aware of. They must be able to develop the curricular components as this is part of their responsibility, but this will be discussed in the teacher skill section. The teachers’ perspectives discussed here are in line with the assertion in Darling-Hammond et al. (2005, p. 171) that “the teacher who lacks clear goals and sense of purpose is likely to have difficulty making sensible, consistent decisions about what to teach, when, and how.”

- **Knowledge of ELT Methodology**
  The teachers’ standards statements concerning IETs’ knowledge about EFL teaching methodology are: (1) the uniqueness of ELT methodology, (2) dynamics of ELT methodology, (3) alternative and supportive ways to teach English, and (4) interesting ways to teach English. (See section 6.2.3.)
In this discussion, the teachers’ perspectives are explicated by using four assumptions. First, regarding the uniqueness of ELT methodology, the teachers were aware that Teflindo is guided by a certain language teaching methodology (Nunan, 1991) which they are required to familiarise themselves with. The methodology may be subject specific or language specific, which means that it does not apply to the teaching of other subjects or may not readily be suitable for teaching a foreign language other than EL.

Second, in terms of the dynamics of ELT methodology, the teachers understood the need for IETs to be aware that teaching methods are constantly changing or characterised by innovations (Larsen-Freeman, 1987). This is important because while many IETs today are still talking about “the best methods to teach English”, few of them realised that language teaching today has been characterised by the “postmethod” discourse for some time (Kumaradivelu, 1994, 2001, 2003), which seeks an alternative to the “transmission model of education” (Kumaradivelu, 2001) characterising the traditional teaching methodology which, ironically, formed an important part in IETs’ professional coursework and knowledge to date.

Third, in relation to the alternative and supportive ways to teach English, the teachers were aware that IETs need to make themselves aware of suitable ELT methods. Taken to the extreme in the context of postmethod pedagogy, this may be interpreted as finding alternatives to ELT methods (Kumaradivelu, 1994). Specifically, it may relate to Kumaradivelu’s (2001, pp. 538–544) propositions of “pedagogy of particularity” and, to some extent, “pedagogy of possibility”.

Finally, in regard to their statements about interesting ways to teach EFL, IETs need to be aware that for their chosen method (or type[s] of pedagogy) to be effective, they should adhere to the set of behavioural patterns suggested by Stronge (2002, p. 17).

In sum, the finding indicates that the teachers have an understanding of: (1) the centrality of ELT methodology in the teachers’ conception of ELT in general and Teflindo in particular, and (2) the importance of emphasising not only the cognitive but also the affective aspects of ELT methodology.
• Knowledge of Non-EFL Subject Matters

As described in section 6.2.4, the teachers were of the opinion that IETs need to have knowledge of non-EFL subject matters including (1) general knowledge, (2) other school subjects, and (3) IT/ICT. In their experience, teacher knowledge in these areas is necessary for supplementing their knowledge of the subject matter and the related disciplines. This was justified by the teachers based on two important factors about English in the contemporary world, namely, (1) the multidimension and multifunction of English, and (2) the use of IT/ICT for education. The teachers gave three examples to illustrate these factors.

First, IETs’ English proficiency should enable them to improve their general knowledge by accessing a broad range and large amount of information about the world. They can use this knowledge to supplement their teaching. Students are increasingly making the most of their easy access to this information, so it is vital that IETs keep up with developments by making their lessons more interesting for the students from the general knowledge (i.e. authentic materials) they obtain from various international sources.

Second, IETs often use reading materials from other subjects such as mathematics or science in their EL lessons. Some knowledge of these subjects would be useful when they engage their students in such materials. This also applies to IETs who work in SBI/RSBI schools, where English is the medium of instruction of the content subjects. IETs’ knowledge of the content subjects would make them more efficient as content subject teachers, especially in the absence of English-speaking content subject teachers.

Third, to achieve all the above, IETs need to familiarise themselves with IT/ICT and make the most of their school’s IT/ICT facilities.

This finding shows how much the teachers believed in the benefit of having general knowledge (non-EFL subject matters) in addition to their knowledge of the subject matter (EL) and related subject matters. Their views are based on their personal experience, observation, and evaluation in their professional practice as IETs. Part of this finding, e.g. on IT/ICT, confirms the standards statements in several generic PTS documents, e.g. the fourth aspect of teacher knowledge of subject content in NSW Professional Teaching Standards (NSWIT, 2010).
Knowledge of Students' Characteristics

The teachers' standards statements concerning IETs' knowledge include students' general characteristics, social and economic backgrounds, behaviour and attitudes to learning English, personal problems, motivation, levels of ability, needs, and learning styles. (See section 6.2.5.)

The teachers viewed the above aspects of teacher knowledge using a three-dimensional approach. First, IETs must be aware of their students' innate, personal characteristics as individuals. Second, IETs must be aware that their students’ learning processes differ and are influenced by a number of individual factors. This finding is in line with research on teachers' knowledge of students in general education e.g. Mayer and Marland (1997), in second language teaching e.g. Freeman and Johnson (1998, p. 412), in LTC, as one of its elements and processes (Borg, 2006b, p. 283), and in various PTS documents, e.g. NBPTS ENL Standards (NBPTS, 2010).

In the list of international PTS for EL teachers presented (see Appendix 27), EL teacher knowledge has ten major components. They range from teachers' knowledge of students and their background to knowledge of ELT curriculum and materials.

In summary, the teachers' perspectives on teacher knowledge are generally in line with eight of the ten major components in the list (see Appendix 27). The two components that they failed to articulate explicitly were “Expectations from ‘outsiders’” (component B1.6 in Appendix 27) and “The context of EL teaching and learning” (B1.8). Expectations from “outsiders” are those made by people not directly involved in the teaching and learning process but teachers may feel obliged to fulfil them. The context of ELT and learning includes theory, practice, and research; learning and teaching aspects, and policies in relation to TESOL/ELT. In Indonesia, this context is almost always characterised by decisions made by experts and the Government, with minimal teacher involvement.

Nevertheless, the teachers were able to articulate one aspect of teacher knowledge not specified in the list, namely, IETs' knowledge of non-EFL subject matters.
b. Teacher Skills

Teacher skills form the second theme of the teachers' standards based on their perspectives on what IETs should be able to do as professional EFL teachers. The results are presented in Chapter 7 under four main headings, namely, (1) English proficiency, (2) planning, (3) instructing, and (4) assessing skills. In general, these are in agreement directly or indirectly with the themes of ESL/EFL teachers’ skills described in TESOL's (2008) standards, which include planning, instructing, assessing, identity and context, language proficiency, learning, content, and commitment and professionalism.

The four skills indicate the teachers’ strong emphasis on IETs’ linguistic and communicative competencies on the one hand and pedagogic competencies on the other. This reflects my earlier comment about IETs being NNESTs who must be proficient in “the content” and be competent in teaching it.

- English Proficiency

As described in section 7.2.1, the teachers made three standards statements regarding IETs’ English proficiency: (1) English macro-/micro-skills and components, (2) oral-aural English, and (3) English proficiency maintenance.

IETs’ English proficiency is considered vital because this constitutes the set of skills in the “content” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) that they must learn and be reasonably good at, in order to teach their students.

It is notable that the teachers emphasised oral and aural skills after mentioning speaking and listening skills in the four macro skills. While this may be seen as redundant, another explanation may be offered. The teachers might have considered these skills to be IETs’ most observable linguistic competencies inside and outside the classroom. They are expected to demonstrate these skills in teaching activities, where English is expected to be used, and in non-teaching activities particularly when English-speaking people are involved or when their interactive skills in English are needed.

Of equal importance is the notion that IETs are models for students for EL learning and proficiency, which may explain why they are expected to keep maintaining their English
proficiency. In other words, to model English use is to use English as much as possible in teaching and in non-teaching activities involving students.

The above standard(s) may seem high because in reality not all IETs excel in all English skills, particularly in the oral/aural ones. Most of the key informants from the universities said that IETs’ poor English proficiency is among the major problems they encountered when working with them during professional development and PSG sessions.

The findings show that the teachers realised that English proficiency was one of their toughest challenges. The high standards they articulated could be meant to drive their collective efforts to improve their skills in this area. In the long run, it would reflect well on the image of the profession and might prevent incompetent and undedicated candidates from entering the profession.

- Planning Skills

As shown in section 7.2.2, the teachers proposed nine standards statements for IETs’ planning skills: (1) plan individually and/or collectively, (2) consider student factors, (3) consider the teaching-learning context, (4) design lesson goals, (5) develop indicators/standards, (6) consider the time and duration, (7) use available resources, (8) design teaching methodology, and (9) assess and evaluate learning.

These nine standards respond to three basic questions: (1) How important is an IET’s planning skill? (2) How are lesson plans prepared? (3) What should lesson plans incorporate?

In response to question (1), planning a lesson was considered by the teachers as an essential part of their profession. They had two main reasons for this.

First, a lesson plan describes what the teacher thinks he or she should do to enable students to achieve a learning goal, which is usually assessed at the end of a certain term of the school year. The teacher needs the lesson plan because what teachers and students will do to achieve that goal is laid out in a lesson plan. This view is certainly in contrast to the views of those who believe in what Harmer (2007b, p. 364) terms “the planning paradox” (see section 3.7.2.3). The teachers did not believe in what is described as a “jungle path”
lesson, where “teachers walk into class with no real idea of what they are going to do” (Scrivener, 1994, as cited in Harmer, 2007b, p. 365).

Second, a lesson plan is one of the documents required of IETs by school supervisors who observe lessons in schools once every semester. The other documents include the school’s EL syllabus, an annual teaching plan, and a semester teaching plan. Thus, the lesson plan is an administrative requirement that IETs must fulfil or is evidence of their accountability.

Referring to question (2), the teachers’ standards give a new meaning to how lesson plans are prepared in Indonesia today. They pointed to the fact that more and more IETs nowadays are developing their lesson plans collectively rather than individually. They know that lesson plans should be prepared individually, but when school supervisors visit schools, they often demand to see lesson plans that are rich in ideas and creativity and address the newly-introduced notion of “character building”, among other things. It is easier to develop such complex lessons in a group than individually. Thus, the lesson plan is often made collectively in order to satisfy administrative requirements.

In regard to question (3), the teachers’ standards point to a comprehensive list of the aspects to be taken into account when making a lesson plan. Standards 3–9 are similar to those mentioned in various sources, e.g. Ornstein’s (1997, p. 229) “components of the lesson plan”, John’s (2006, p. 484) “format”, and Harmer’s (2007b, pp. 371–377) “background elements” and “sequence of lessons”.

- **Instructing Skills**

  The teachers articulated ten IET instructing skills standards under two main categories. The first category is “general EL instructing skills”, comprising: (1) assistance, (2) application, (3) ability, (4) affection, (5) autonomy, and (6) awareness. The second category is “specific EL instructing skills”, outlining IETs’ ability to teach the skills of: (1) listening, (2) speaking, (3) reading, and (4) writing. These were described in section 7.2.3.
General EL Instructional Skills

The standards statements in this section are those expected of IETs in the majority, if not all, situations in the classroom regardless of the particular English skills or components being focused on.

**Assistance.** The teachers believed that IETs would be able to facilitate their students’ learning of EL when they: (1) tailor their teaching to students’ learning, which is the key finding in this section; (2) ensure lessons are easy to understand; (3) organise students’ learning; (4) use a student-centred approach; (5) use their artistic abilities; (6) reduce students’ anxiety; and (7) communicate effectively with students. (See section 7.2.3.1.)

It should be noted that the importance of tailoring teaching to students’ learning has been addressed explicitly or implicitly in various sources. In general education, it is emphasised by Kobrin (2004) who says that “tailoring lessons to students’ life experiences increases learning and achievement”, and by Stronge (2002) who says that an effective teacher “makes instructional decisions based on student achievement data analysis”. In language teaching, this competency can be inferred from Mangubhai’s “Insight 9” which is based on his review of the literature on second language acquisition which suggests that “the different rate of learning observed in our students arise out of individual differences” (Mangubhai, 2006). It can also be inferred from Brown’s (2007b) “Principle 3: Meaningful learning”. In Bell’s (2005) questionnaire, effective foreign language teachers are described as being able to “adjust learning activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests”.

**Application.** As described in section 7.2.3.2, the teachers expected IETs to be able to (1) manage the classroom, which is the key finding in this section; (2) use suitable approaches and methods; (3) ensure students understand the materials taught and are able to do what is expected of them; (4) follow a certain procedure in teaching; and (5) update their ways of teaching.

Classroom management is seen here from the limited perspectives of how IETs deal with “common classroom issues of order” (Stronge, 2002, pp. 26–28), rather than with the
larger aspects of classroom management described by many authors. Nunan (1989, pp. 189–207), for example, has stated that classroom management includes maximising the amount and type of teacher talk, teacher questions, feedback, instruction, and explanations and other classroom interactional activities.

The fact that in Indonesia EL is commonly perceived as a “hard subject” means that it is crucial that IETs develop specific competencies in “language classroom maximisation efforts”. These are not only useful for enhancing student learning but also for preventing or tackling classroom behaviour problems such as lack of discipline, interest, and attention. It is important to note that such problems have a gender undertone biased against female IETs. In general schools, female IETs are generally fine, but those working in SMKs often find their students, most of whom are male and “unruly”, and tough to work with. In fact, as revealed in Chapter 7, even male IETs in these schools have had gender issues involving male students.

The importance of classroom management has been addressed quite extensively in the literature. It is described in one chapter in many language teaching training textbooks, notably Brown (2007b, pp. 241–256). Principles of classroom management can also be found, for instance, in the discussion of “learner-focused teaching” in Richards (2010, pp. 111–114) and as “develop[ing] acceptable behaviour in the classroom” in Breen et al. (2001, p. 488).

**Ability.** IETs are expected to be able to have the competencies of (1) creating opportunities to speak English, which is the key finding in this section; (2) using authentic materials or connect their lessons to the real world; and (3) involving students in classroom activities using EL. (See section 7.2.3.3.)

The teachers expected IETs to create opportunities for themselves and students to use English. The emphasis, however, seems to be on verbal communication skills as these skills are believed to provide wider and more meaningful opportunities to practise verbal skills. In Indonesia, such an emphasis may have been given due to the significance of teacher talk in EL classrooms as “the major source of comprehensible target language input” (Nunan, 1991, p. 189).
This finding supports the assertions made in various sources on English acquisition, especially those stating EL teachers’ competency in creating an EL classroom rich in target language use. For example, it is expressed as “Insight 5” (see Mangubhai, 2006, pp. 7–8), and as “Principle 12”: communicative competence,” which prioritises language use over usage” (Brown, 2007b, p. 79). EL teachers’ awareness of this is reported by Ganjabi (2011, p. 50) whose study found that Iranian EL teachers put strong emphasis on communicative activities, despite their students’ preference for an emphasis on grammar work.

In this regard, it is interesting to note that the teachers were in general agreement that English, being the target language, must be used by both the teachers and students in the class. They agreed that in the Indonesian context the classroom provides the environment necessary for exposing students to L2 use and acquisition. However, many of them believed that it is unrealistic to expect that English be used exclusively and that the use of students’ L1, which is also shared by the IETs, be banned. Therefore, they suggested that IETs should speak English 50% of the time when teaching. The reason is that such things as grammar and vocabulary could be better presented in a language that all students find easier to understand, and that is their L1. In other words, the teachers were not against the use of L1 in teaching English. In fact, their views support the views advocating teacher codeswitching in a foreign language classroom, expressed in terms of the “optimal use’ of codeswitching” (Macaro, 2009) and the “principles for balancing L1 and TL use in the classroom” (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). The views are also in line with the suggestions for EL teachers not to feel guilty about using students’ L1 in the classroom (e.g. Swain et al., 2011). Nevertheless, all the above represents just one side of the argument about the justification for using students’ (and often teachers’) shared language in the teaching of a second/foreign language.

**Affection.** As shown in section 7.2.3.4, IETs are expected to be competent in (1) keeping students interested and motivated to learn EL; (2) making the classroom a fun place to learn EL; (3) using games, music, fillers, humour, and creative activities to make their lessons enjoyable. The key findings are competencies numbers (1) and (2), with number (1) being broader in scope. These two competencies contain the essence of the third competency.
EL teachers’ efforts in keeping students interested and motivated to learn EL particularly by making the classroom a fun place to learn with the use of “fun” activities are supported in the literature. For example, these competencies were revealed in Borg’s (2006a, p. 20) research on language teachers’ perspectives on the distinctive characteristics of language teaching. These competencies were also articulated by language teachers in Breen et al. (2001) and can be inferred from Richards’ (2010, pp. 111–114) description about language teachers’ competency in “learner-focused teaching”. In the Indonesian context, they were emphasised by authors such as Marwan (2009, p. 166) and Liando (2006, pp. 146–162).

**Autonomy.** As described in section 7.2.3.5, IETs are expected to be able to (1) create opportunities for students to learn independently, including homework assignments; (2) help students think and learn inductively; and (3) give feedback or correct students’ errors. The key finding here is competencies (1) and (2) which emphasises independent learning, and which also captures the essence of competency (3).

The teachers’ emphasis on developing students’ independent learning skills, including completing homework assignments, suggests that they practised this in their classes. They used the term homework to refer to the nightly tasks that they ask students to do at home. According to Van Voorhis (2004) who discusses “the homework ritual” in general education, most teachers assign homework for one of ten purposes: “practice, preparation, participation, personal development, parent-teacher communication, parent-child relations, peer-interactions, policy, public relations, and punishment”, all of which serve three main functions: “instructional, communicative, and political” (p. 207). While the purposes and functions of the teachers’ homework assignments were not probed further by the present study, it is clear that the teachers saw homework assignment as part of IETs’ instructing competencies. Nevertheless, as stated by Van Voorhis (2004), most families have probably encountered situations such as “the burden of too much homework, parents uncertain about how to help, and forgotten assignments” (p. 205). The competency of EL teachers’, let alone IETs’, in this area has received very little attention.
The second theme about inductive learning mostly concerns the teaching of grammar. Inductive teaching of grammar follows the idea of some theorists such as Stephen D. Krashen about the need to expose students to comprehensible input in the target language to enable them to acquire the grammar (cited in Vogel et al., 2011, p. 354). This approach differs from that where “teachers often offer rules first and then examples”, which is described as deductive grammar teaching (Shaffer, 1989, p. 345). Inductive approaches to grammar teaching have been addressed by authors such as R. Ellis (1993), Batstone and R. Ellis (2009), and Thornbury (2000). In this study, the teachers seemed to be interested in the novelty and element of autonomy in the inductive approach to teaching grammar, which is contrary to the traditional, deductive approach they experienced when learning EL at school or when teaching EL in the early years of their career.

The third theme in this section is about corrective feedback. It is implied in the teachers’ perspectives that IETs should be competent in giving different types of feedback. This includes one type of feedback described as “the recast—the teacher’s correct restatement of a learner’s incorrectly formed utterance” (Nicholas et al., 2001). In my own experience, IETs tend to correct their students explicitly, so the recast should be an interesting way of giving feedback that they might want to try themselves.

Awareness. It was shown in section 7.2.3.6 that the teachers expected IETs to have the ability to show students the benefits of learning English. This is the key finding in this section. It was felt by the teachers that it is highly important for IETs to make students aware of the need to learn and be proficient in English. It is believed that such awareness will motivate or sustain students’ motivation to learn English.

EL teachers’ competency in this area has been addressed elsewhere in the literature, especially from the Indonesian context. In Liando (2006), the teacher-trainees and teacher-educators involved in her study attributed their choice of study and field of expertise to their former teachers who had inspired them in many ways, including making them aware of the importance of English proficiency in today’s world. In this way, Liando’s respondents had viewed their IETs as role models, whose EL learning success had given them so much including the opportunity to study in English-speaking countries—something I know many
Indonesians aspire to achieve. Another study by Jazadi (2003) in Lombok (an island next to Bali) describes how his respondents were aware of the role of English. The most prevalent teacher’s view was that English is the language of science and technology—a view that reflects Indonesia’s national policy toward the teaching of English. Nevertheless, Jazadi criticised the teachers for overlooking the importance of teaching English to the local population whose island is now a major international tourist destination in Indonesia

**Specific EL Instructional Skills**

“Specific EL instructional skills” are expected to be demonstrated by IETs when they deal particularly with each of the four macro skills in English, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The results are presented in Chapter 7 and are discussed in this section to provide answers to research questions 4, 5, and 6. The teachers generally gave their perspectives about teaching the EL skills in terms of three elements: (1) objectives, (2) materials, and (3) activities/methods.

**Listening Skills.** In section 7.2.3.7, it was described that the teachers were aware that listening skills are quite challenging for themselves and their students. They seemed to realise that most students have great difficulty understanding spoken English. Spoken language, such as English spoken in the Indonesian context, is difficult because it is different from the written English that IETs and students deal with most of the time.

As outlined in point (1) of section 3.7.2.3, spoken language is characterised by eight features (Dunkel, 1991, Flowerdew & Miller, 2005, Richards, 1983, and Ur, 1984, cited in Brown, 2007b, pp. 304–307). IETs must deal with these characteristics in the classroom in their efforts to develop their students’ listening skills. If classroom listening lessons are hard already, the fact that listening comprehension is now part of the dreaded UAN for EL makes listening skills even more challenging for both IETs and students.

Given such challenges, the teachers said that their aim in teaching listening skills is that their students’ understand spoken English for general purposes or “real-life listening situations” (Ur, 1996, p. 105), and for examinations (including UAN). It can be inferred that these two purposes are achieved in two phases. First, in grades (years) 7 and 8 of SMP/MTs
and 10 and 11 of *SMA/SMK/MA/MAK*, listening lessons may be for general purposes. Second, in grades 9 of *SMP/MTs* and 12 of *SMA/SMK/MA/MAK*, the focus is on the final examinations.

The teachers’ understanding that listening is a receptive skill (Spratt et al., 2005, p. 30) might be the reason why the teachers spoke much about students’ responses being indicators of their comprehension, or lack of comprehension, of the listening material (cf. Grabe, 2008). Therefore, the materials and activities/methods used in teaching listening should be those that indicate comprehension from students’ responses. They also said that listening material(s) should be delivered through recordings or orally by the teacher. It can be further inferred that for general-purpose listening lessons taught in grades 7, 8, 10, and 11, IETs’ focus may just be on the “idea” in the responses, but for the *UAN*-oriented listening lessons in grades 9 and 12, it may be on the accuracy of the responses.

**Speaking Skills.** As shown in section 7.2.3.8, the teachers shared the view that students’ success in learning a language is often judged from how well they can speak it; that to enable students to speak the target language means getting them or giving them as much opportunity as possible to speak it, or interact in it (Allwright, 1984). In the focus groups, the teachers spoke of this as “increasing STT and reducing TTT” (cf. Walsh, 2002)—the former being “student-talk time” and the latter “teacher-talk time”.

But this is easier said than done; having studied EL formally since year 7 or even earlier—in the case of those fortunate enough to have EL lessons in primary schools—Indonesian students generally have low EL proficiency (Jazadi, 2003, p. 2). Therefore developing this productive skill in students is a challenging endeavour for IETs.

In terms of the objective of teaching speaking skills, the teachers stated that the focus should be on fluency rather than on accuracy. Their conception of “fluency” here might be in line to a large extent with that of Spratt et al. (2005):

- **Fluency** is speaking at a normal speed, without hesitation, repetition or self-correction, and with smooth use of connected speech. **Accuracy** in speaking is the use of correct forms of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation (p. 34; emphasis in original)
The teachers’ understanding of “fluency” is that their students are able to produce English in speech as much as possible. To achieve this, they design lessons that allow students to speak English without having to worry about making grammatical mistakes as long as they are understood. They believed that if students think about grammar all the time, they would not be able to speak English. This typically “interactive language teaching” approach to teaching speaking skills is not supported by Brown (2007b, p. 331) whose principles of teaching speaking skills in L2 include a focus on fluency and accuracy on the grounds that using incorrect grammar or vocabulary may affect their interlocutors’ comprehension. Notwithstanding this, the teachers have tried to address the issue of Indonesian students’ lack of proficiency in spoken English. It may be inferred that in practice, the teachers also address accuracy problems in one way or another.

The focus on fluency above may be responsible for the teachers’ choice of “conversations or dialogues” as their main materials and activities/methods in teaching English speaking skills. This supports Brown’s (2007b, p. 322) assertion that relates speaking skills to the conversational discourse, which the teachers believed could be achieved by giving students as much opportunity as possible to communicate with their interlocutors in English. Among the activities suggested by the teachers are: (1) out-of-class conversations with native speakers, (2) incorporating spoken English use in certain school routines, (3) developing a topic into a dialogue, (4) monologues, e.g. reporting to class, (5) “vocational English”, i.e. English conversation in a workplace, and (6) role plays. (Goh and Burns (2012) have criticised the implementation of such activities for their tendency to lack the teaching aspect due to an emphasis on fluency and communication.)

Some of these activities may capture the essence of other speaking activities described as “discussion” by Ur (1996, pp. 124–131), including “describing pictures”, “picture differences”, “things in common”, “shopping list”, and “other kinds of spoken interaction”, e.g. “interactional talk”, “long turns”, and “varied situations, feelings, relationships”, among other things.

*Reading Skills.* As described in section 7.2.3.9, the teachers’ general view about teaching reading skills is that it centres on developing students’ receptive English skills. This view is
similar to that about teaching listening skills, except that reading “involves responding to text, rather than producing it…. [It] involves making sense of text” (Spratt et al., 2005, p. 21).

Therefore, to teach students reading skills in English is to enable them to comprehend a text in English. However, their comprehension could only be measured or assessed if they could give responses to the comprehension questions, showing their understanding of the text. Such view is palpable in the teachers’ perspectives on the objective, materials, and activities/methods of teaching reading discussed in this section.

With students’ comprehension of the text in English being the objective of teaching reading skills, such activities as “reading aloud” (oral reading) are considered by most of the teachers as irrelevant. In other words, reading (comprehension) is not about oral reading. Having said this, however, oral reading is at times necessary, e.g. when it serves as a pronunciation check (Brown, 2007b, p. 371). This emphasis on comprehension has another explanation: reading is one of the most challenging parts in the national final examination for EL. In this test students are required to read and comprehend text(s) and then answer a number of comprehension questions.

In terms of materials, the teachers emphasised variety and authenticity. This means that the reading texts must be taken from various sources, including print materials and written texts from the Internet, and that they must be about topics students would encounter in real life. This view is in line with Ur’s (1996, p. 150) suggestion to use authentic or near-authentic materials in teaching students at an advanced level.

The activities/methods for teaching reading skills suggested by the teachers vary in terms of three general stages and four specific ways of ensuring students’ comprehension. The three stages are described by the teachers as “pre-reading, whilst-reading, and post-reading activities”, can be found in Brown (2007b, p. 375). They appear as Brown’s seventh out of eight principles for teaching reading skills. The four specific ways to ensure students’ comprehension were described by the teachers as (1) reading for specific information, (2) making inferences, (3) using L1/translation, and (4) reading aloud.

**Writing Skills.** IETs’ teaching of writing skills is the one most affected by the current implementation of a genre-based approach (GBA) in ELT in Indonesia. (See section
7.2.3.10.) GBA was introduced in the early or mid-2000s along with the implementation of the Competency-Based Curriculum (KBK) which governs what goes into the contents of school curriculum. Note that KBK is to be distinguished from the School-Based Curriculum (KTSP) which refers to the approach to developing a curriculum at the school level—as opposed to a national curriculum, which is developed by a body under the MNERI.

The teachers’ perspectives on this skill reflect their uncritical “acceptance” of GBA as a teaching approach. GBA was introduced by the Government through Standar Isi [Content Standards] and the teachers might have interpreted it as another “government program” that they had to support. The support was given despite TEFLIN’s criticism of the implementation of GBA in Indonesia during a recent focus-group discussion in Bandung, West Java. The organisation even labelled the implementation and all the problems it has caused as a form of “malpractice” and “torture” for IETs (TEFLIN, 2011, pp. 1–2). None of the teachers voiced their criticism of GBA in the perspectives discussed in this section. Their standards statements regarding GBA must therefore be interpreted in the context of the GBA implementation per se as they may not be applicable to teaching EL writing skills in general where GBA is only one of the approaches recommended.

In terms of the objectives of teaching students writing skills in English, the teachers articulated two main emphases. The first is on teaching students to produce real-life texts and a variety of text types. This view reflects the basic tenet of GBA based on M.A.K. Halliday’s Systemic Functional Grammar (Emilia, 2011, p. 4) which is echoed by Brown (2007b, p. 403) and Ur (1996, pp. 159–166).

The second emphasis is on the grammatical accuracy of the texts that students produce. This is a slight departure from the tenets of GBA which is error-tolerant. However, this seems to indicate the teachers’ common perception that, when it comes to students’ written work, an IET’s responsibility is to mark their papers and correct any grammatical mistakes there. Nevertheless, error correction here may be interpreted to describe an IET’s role in “editing” and “proof-reading” (Spratt et al., 2005, p. 27).

As far as materials are concerned, the teachers articulated statements referring to authentic texts on two levels. At the micro-level are words and sentences, which may have
no context, and at the macro-level there are paragraphs and compositions, which may be contextual. Due to the types of schools where the teachers worked, only two specific types of written products were articulated, the first being composition genres applicable to ELT in general schools, and the second being referred to as “vocational English” as it only applies to vocational high schools (SMK/MAK). This view seems to share Brown’s (2007b, p. 402) idea about “real writing” as a type of classroom writing performance, which falls under three categories: “academic”, “vocational/technical”, and “personal”.

The teachers’ perspectives show what they thought about the activities/methods of teaching students’ writing skills in EL. That is, students in general should (1) be exposed to the genre-based writing process, (2) not worry about making grammatical errors, (3) be allowed to write about a topic that interests them, and (4) be guided in their writing process. Ur (1996, p. 162) described all the above in terms of “teaching procedures”, in which writing may be treated as “a means”, “an end”, and as “both means and end”.

- **Assessing Skills**

As shown in section 7.2.4, the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ assessing skills emphasise the importance of: (1) assessment validity, reliability, and achievability; (2) goals and criteria; (3) pre-assessment circumstances; (4) types of assessment, (5) self-reflection and self-assessment, and (6) feedback and remediation. In essence these are to do with the quality, reference, context, and implementation of EL learning assessment in the context of Teflindo.

Speaking particularly of EL tests as a subset of language assessment, the teachers saw as essential IETs’ ability to design tests that meet the quality criteria regarding validity, reliability, and achievability (or practicality)—three of the principles of language assessment mentioned in the literature. According to Brown (2007b, pp. 446–453), the principles also include *authenticity* and *washback*. The teachers implied these last principles in their comments (see section 7.2.4.1) but not to the extent described by Brown.

Regarding assessment, the teachers’ perspectives stressed the need for IETs to be able to construct English tests that are based on the lesson goals and assessment criteria. These are two different things: lesson goals are the ones designed for teaching the lesson
and the students’ attainment of these goals is measured through the test. The teachers understood the link that IETs should establish between lesson plans and assessment procedures. Assessment criteria are those that IETs are expected to design in order to assess students’ performance in EL. The terms norm-referenced and criterion-referenced methods of assessment (Brindley, 1990; Brown, 2007b), may be applicable here to describe IETs’ lesson objectives and test criteria.

Context refers to two factors, namely, pre-assessment circumstances and students. IETs should consider and have skills in identifying these when planning or conducting an assessment of students’ English performance because they may affect the administration and outcomes of an assessment process such as a test.

Finally, the teachers made statements which I categorised as implementation of assessment (standards 4, 5, and 6). This is to do with two main activities by IETs. They are, first, the types of tests or assessment procedures IETs should be able to develop, and, second, the feedback and remediation that teachers need to incorporate into their assessment procedures.

The teachers were able to articulate their understandings about EL learning assessment as a way to evaluate the attainment of curricular objectives and goals. They were able to view assessment as an “overarching term” (Inbar-Lourie, 2008) used to refer to all methods and approaches to testing and evaluation, rather than just testing or tests. The assessing skills they mentioned are widely established in the literature on educational assessment and language education assessment. For example, they can be inferred from and compared with the Standards for Teacher Competence in Educational Assessment of Students developed by the American Federation of Teachers, National Council on Measurement in Education, and National Education Association (Brookhart, 2011, p. 3) as well as Brookhart’s own proposed updated list (p. 7). They can also be found in Bell’s (2005) report of her study of the behaviours and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers in the U.S.

In summary, when to compared to the list of international PTS for EL teachers (see Appendix 27), the teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ skills were found to be in line with at least
thirty-four out of the forty major components and two of the three sub-components. This shows that the teachers were aware of the best practice in EL teaching recognised and practised worldwide.

The major components that the teachers failed to articulate were: “Connecting EL to other subjects” (component B2.1.3 in Appendix 27); “Cultural/ (cross-cultural) factors” (B2.2.20); “Being aware of EL learning theories” (B2.2.25); “Class dynamics” (B2.2.28); “Administrative responsibilities” (B2.2.20); and “Freedom of expression and respect” (B2.2.31). Additionally, the two sub-components that the teachers did not mention specifically were “Visual literacy” (B2.3.1.1) and “Involving students in evaluating teaching/learning” (B2.3.6.1). Nevertheless, the teachers have actually represented their views on some of these components (e.g. “Cultural (cross-cultural) factors”) in Chapter 6 on teacher knowledge.

On the other hand, the teachers’ perspectives have some ideas not emphasised in the international standards. These include: (1) proficiency in the macro- and micro-skills and components of English; (2) artistic ability; (3) teacher accountability; and (4) comprehensive aspects of lesson planning.

c. Teacher Dispositions

Teacher dispositions constitute the third and final theme of the teachers’ standards statements based on their perspectives on what personal, moral, social, pedagogical, and professional values IETs are expected to have as professional EFL teachers. They are discussed in this section to provide answers to research questions 4, 5, and 6.

The results have been presented in Chapter 8 under three main headings: (1) personality dispositions, (2) pedagogic dispositions, and (3) professional dispositions. It is important to note that despite being discussed in sections, these dispositions complement each other, meaning that each trait should be understood in relation to the other dispositions. This attribute of teacher disposition is in agreement with Sockett’s (2006, p. 23) definition (see section 8.1).
Personality Dispositions

It was shown in section 8.2.1 that personality dispositions or standards for IETs consist of eight standards statements. They expect IETs to (1) have basic personality traits of teachers, (2) be convivial, (3) be self-restrained, (4) have integrity, (5) care, (6) be resourceful, (7) be disciplined, and (8) be presentable. Notwithstanding their specific personality dimensions, these dispositions are characterised by specific pedagogic dimensions. They are discussed in this section in terms of their implications for and applications in Teflindo.

The teachers’ standards for IETs’ basic personality traits comprise their perceived ideal teacher dispositions ranging from IETs’ personality dispositions, religiosity, wisdom, humility, sociability, and other socially and professionally recognised teacher characteristics, i.e. their being helpful, love of working with children, and being sincere (ikhlas) as teachers. IETs’ conviviality was articulated in terms of how friendly and jovial they are. IETs were also expected to show self-restraint. In terms of accountability, IETs’ honesty and responsibility are the two dispositions seen as ideal. IETs who care, in the teachers’ opinions, are those who demonstrate fairness and pay attention. As far as IETs’ resourcefulness is concerned, the teachers emphasised the importance of IETs’ creativity with the materials and instruction as well as their innovativeness and adaptability. Self-discipline and punctuality are considered by the teachers as interrelated and are highly expected of IETs. Finally, an important IET disposition is their presentability which concerns their conformity to the dress code and demeanour.

It can be inferred from the teachers’ comments during the interviews and focus groups that the above dispositions are, to a large extent, innate characteristics of IETs. It means that they are the kinds of attitudes IETs are expected to bring with them when they enter the profession and maintain throughout their career. This is to say that these dispositions may be inborn or natural, as can be seen in such dispositions as humility and self-restraint. However, this is certainly not to say that the other dispositions are entirely innate. One may argue that such dispositions as creativity, discipline and punctuality, and presentability, which are described as innate here, may not be entirely innate as they can be acquired through life experience or training.
Most of the teacher personality dispositions above are in line with what the literature says about “good”, “outstanding”, or “effective” teacher characteristics (e.g. Beishuizen et al., 2001; Liando, 2006, 2010; Sockett, 2006; Stewart, 2006; Stronge, 2002). Some dispositions such as being religious, being humble, and being sincere in undertaking teaching responsibilities articulated by the teachers support earlier findings by Yuwono and Harbon (2010). These dispositions may not be considered as directly relevant to language teachers’ effectiveness by people in other parts of the world, but are stressed by IETs here. Their view may reflect the Indonesian sociocultural context which still expects teachers to have such dispositions. Indeed, it is these dispositions that make the teachers’ PTS statements on dispositions unique, compared to those stated in international PTS documents and in LTC research studies reviewed for the present study.

• **Pedagogic Dispositions**

As described in section 8.2.2, the teachers’ pedagogic dispositions for IETs are expressed in two standards statements, namely (1) being an exemplar of character, and (2) being an exemplar of English learning success and use. Teachers being exemplars (Stewart, 2006) is not uncommon in Indonesia and their familiarity with this concept could be seen in their perspectives on pedagogic dispositions during the interview and focus group sessions. The used key phrases such as: “to teach and educate”, “good example”, “role models”, “proper behaviour and attitude”, “social expectations”, all of which refer to IETs being exemplars of character, as well as “language modelling” and “teachers as language models”, which refer to IETs being exemplars of English learning success and use.

The first five key phrases above and their applicability to IETs as exemplars of character are rooted in Indonesian society and culture. As discussed in Chapter 8, the proverbs *Guru wajib digugu dan ditiru* ‘Teachers are to be obeyed and emulated’, which is of Javanese origin, and *Guru kencing berdiri, murid kencing berlari* ‘Teachers pass water standing up, students do the same running’ are often cited by various members of the Indonesian society, including teachers themselves, to emphasise two things. First, it is important for teachers to be of exemplary character to the society at large and, particularly, to their own students. Second, teachers should always be a good example; if teachers are a
bad example, their students could emulate their behaviour and teachers would lose respect not only from students but also from society. Such attributes of teachers might also relate to the etymology of the word *guru* ‘teacher’ itself, which is a Sanskrit word for a spiritual or religious leader in Hinduism—once a major religion in Indonesia.

In the literature, the topic of teachers as (moral) exemplars has been addressed by many authors and researchers such as Ornstein (1995), Stewart (2006), Schwartz (2007), and Osguthorpe (2008). For example, Ornstein (1995, pp. 12–14) states that the moral dimension of teachers is vital for teaching students. Describing Moses, Jesus, Confucius, Mahatma Gandhi, and Martin Luther King, Jr. as great teachers who combined the pursuit of truth, kindness, and caring attitudes with their teaching, he stressed that teachers as moral exemplars must be considered in teacher preparation programs, and that failure to do so “suggests an inadequacy in our thinking and beliefs” (p.12).

The last two key phrase above, “language modelling” and “teachers as language models”, represent the teachers’ conception of IETs’ as exemplars of English learning success and use. There are at least two reasons for this disposition. First, for Indonesian students, IETs are fellow Indonesians who have been successful in learning English and students may look up to them for inspiration. Their proficiency in the language may send a positive message to students that they, too, can someday be proficient in English. Second, as has been discussed in various sources, e.g. Nunan (1991) and Jazadi (2003), this relates to the previous reason, in EFL contexts such as in Indonesia, teachers may be the only source of target language input for students. Consequently, students may rely on them for their English learning.

The above discussion has shown that ELT is not something that anyone who can speak English can do (Richards, 2010, p. 119). In the Indonesian context of Teflindo, this occupation must only be filled by people who possess the personal dispositions described in the literature and by the teachers above.
• Professional Dispositions

The standards for IETs’ professional dispositions are articulated in two statements: (1) commitment to teaching professionally, and (2) commitment to professional development. (See section 8.2.3.)

The first statement consists of four aspects, namely (1) being motivational and persuasive, (2) being communicative, (3) being dedicated, and (4) being committed to student learning. In essence, these dispositions are all about IETs doing the best they can to enable students to learn English and be proficient in it. The commitment to professional development has two aspects, namely (1) being committed to self-improvement, and (2) being collegial. These dispositions are essentially about the personal and collegial dimensions of IETs trying to keep up with and contribute to the development of their field of expertise of Teflindo.

In many respects, the four aspects described in standard (1) above are line with the characteristics of committed and effective foreign language teachers in a number of publications. For example, they correspond with some of the behaviours and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers reported in Bell (2005).

The two aspects in standard (2) commitment professional development can be found in the literature on teacher professionalism. Aspect 1 on commitment to self-improvement agrees with the eleven questions from Richards (2010, p. 119) that IETs could ask themselves when reflecting on their practice. As for aspect 2 on professional development, which necessitates that IETs work collegially, Richards’ (2010, p. 118) three forms of collaboration support the teachers’ perspectives in this regard.

In summary, the list of international PTS for EL teachers (see Appendix 27) has eleven major components. Three of these have a total of five sub-components. The teachers’ perspectives on IETs’ dispositions were found to be in line, explicitly or implicitly, with almost all of the major and sub-components.

In fact, the teachers were able to emphasise the standards that are not clearly stated or missing from the list. The highlights are: (1) sense of humour; (2) patience; (3) discipline
and punctuality; (4) religiosity; (5) sincerity; (6) adherence to a dress code; (7) demeanour; (8) being models for students; and (9) being motivational, persuasive, and communicative.

9.3.2.3 Research Question 6: Are there any elements in the teachers’ perspectives on IET competencies that are unique to the Indonesian context?

The following four themes and the points they contain were found to be either unique to the Indonesian context or in need of an explanation on the basis of the circumstances in Indonesia.

a. Teacher Knowledge

(1) Culture of EL speakers (section 6.2.1.5) and cross-cultural understanding (6.2.1.6). The teachers held the view that native speakers of English are only those who come from the major English-speaking countries (England, U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand) and that to teach cross-cultural understanding is to make students aware of the culture of only these “inner-circle countries” (Kachru, 1985, cited in Zacharias, 2003, p. 16) in comparison to that of Indonesia. While such an opinion is not completely wrong, in the current context of EFL, I assume that IETs should: (1) enrich their content knowledge with an understanding of English as an international language (EIL) (Pennycook, 1994), English as a (global) lingua franca (ELF) (Seidlhofer, 2005), and World Englishes (e.g. Allsagoff et al., 2012), which have questioned the notion and challenged the status quo; and (2) assess the implications of EIL, ELF, and World Englishes for ELT (Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Swain et al., 2011).

(2) Collective lesson planning activities (section 6.2.2.3). I assume collective planning is the direct consequence of: (1) the implementation of school-based curriculum (KTSP) which requires subject teachers to sit together and discuss what needs to be included in their school’s curriculum and syllabus of their respective subjects; and (2) the recommendation from BSNP for teachers to plan their lessons collectively in their schools or with MGMP or KKG members (see section 6.2.2.3). To date, there is
nothing in the literature that suggests that collective lesson planning also occurs or is encouraged in educational contexts other than Indonesia.

(3) **The use of text types, especially for teaching writing and reading skills (section 6.2.2.4).** This perspective needs to be understood in the Indonesian context of ELT where the use of text types is prescribed under the implementation of a genre-based approach (GBA) in the KBK curriculum. What this means is that the teachers simply amplified the government’s policy regarding GBA as they did not attempt to offer an alternative approach to teaching the relevant EL skill(s);

(4) **Alternative and supportive ways to teach EL (section 6233) and interesting ways to teach EL (6234).** The teachers’ perspectives under this theme concern the ideas to provide alternative ways to teach EL in the Indonesian context such as through outdoor lessons and study tours, and the need to make EL lessons interesting, fun, and motivating for students with the inclusion of games, songs, and practical activities with high relevance to students’ future engagements (e.g. in teaching EL to vocational students). As shown by the teachers’ perspectives, IETs seem to find the notion of “teaching a fun lesson” very appealing and worth trying.

(5) **Knowledge of other subjects (section 6.2.4.2).** The teachers who emphasised this point were mainly those who worked in the international-standard schools (RSBI and SBI) in which the teaching of the core (content) subjects such as mathematics and physics is conducted in English. IETs were reported to have been requested to assist the content subject teachers with their English in delivering their materials. It is not known to what extent teachers’ knowledge of other subjects is expected of IETs working in non-RSBI and non-SBI schools.

b. **Teacher Skills**

(1) **Collective planning in terms of curricular planning and lesson planning (see sections 7.2.2 and 7.2.2.1).** This might be unique to the Indonesian context given the recommendation by BSNP, the national standards development agency itself for teachers to make their plans collectively, and this applies to both the school
curriculum (KTSP) and the daily lesson plans. Reports suggesting the occurrence of such practice in contexts other than Indonesia were not available.

(2) Teachers’ artistic talents, particularly in acting, drawing, and singing for teaching (section 7.2.3.1). EL teachers in general might find this part of the competency a little too challenging. While it might be ideal to be an artistic teacher, being artistic, particularly to act and/or sing in front of the classroom is an ability that not every EL teacher is talented or dares to do. If this statement makes its way into the future subject-specific PTS for IETs, one needs to weigh its implications for teacher training and teacher recruitment, which would have to include artistic talents in the recruitment requirements.

(3) Teaching the four EL skills (sections 7.2.3.7 – 7.2.3.10). Notwithstanding what the teachers have articulated, when compared to the current thinking in the literature, the teachers’ perspectives on teaching the four skills in general seemed to be somewhat traditional. For example, the teachers’ views that listening is a passive skill and that its goal is the accuracy in answering comprehension questions had been criticised by Field (2008). The teachers’ take on teaching speaking skills have also been questioned by Goh and Burns (2012) who criticise the lack or absence of real teaching in many speaking classes (pp. 2-4). In Goh and Burns’ opinion, in order to engage students to speak in the target language, instead of just getting them to talk as many teachers do, the teacher needs to “teach” the students the skill and strategies or new language (p. 3). In sum, with the exception of just a few, the teachers’ perspectives seemed to dwell still on the question “what,” as they tried to implement what was prescribed to them during their professional education and training. They were yet to embrace the “what if,” which involves questioning one’s own practices and seeking alternative ways of doing things.

c. Teacher Dispositions

(1) Personality dispositions (section 8.2.1). The personality dispositions seem to be as applicable to all teachers in general, however, certain traits are crucial to EL teachers
due to the nature of the subject (i.e. English being a dreaded subject alongside mathematics for many students in Indonesia). Pleasantness, humility, sociability, conviviality, care, resourcefulness, and presentability were thought to be important as they are believed to make English appealing to all students, while self-restraint, integrity, and discipline are the general necessary qualities particularly in dealing with some behavioural problems that students struggling with English often exhibit. Interestingly, the teachers articulated the importance of teacher religiosity, which is not stated in any PTS and references on teacher quality reviewed for this study. Indonesian teachers are politically required and socio-culturally expected to believe in God and adhere to and practice one of the six religions formally recognised by the state. Religiosity might have been articulated by the teachers to reflect this requirement and expectation. Some of the teachers also stated that it is important for IETs to be ‘good looking’. What they meant might be in the literal sense of the word, and that is being physically attractive. However, what they also meant might be that IETs should be ‘presentable’ in the sense that they should look after themselves in terms of their attire and personal appearance because they are constantly in the public eye, both at work and in society.

(2) Teachers as students’ character role models (section 8.2.2.1). These can be interpreted to include how teachers talk, how they dress themselves, and how they treat their students, which must meet Indonesian social expectations particularly regarding politeness, modesty, neatness, and kindness. However, these qualities were emphasised not only because they are believed to make teachers effective (e.g. they may contribute to EL teachers’ favourability thus making their subject favourable, too) but also because they are the exemplary personal qualities that students can emulate. This finding can be considered unique to Indonesia due to its relation to the concept of mendidik (to educate; to instil character in students) in addition to mengajar (to teach or deliver materials to students).

(3) Commitment to teaching professionally (section 8.2.3.1). The finding shows a unique desire relative to the Indonesian context of TEFL: (1) The teachers demanded
a “desacralisation” of the contexts in which they and their students communicate. This is meant to make teachers’ and students’ interaction less formal. This might be the fruit of the Reformasi Movement in which the Indonesian people use the newfound freedom they have to look at and do things differently after living for over three decades under the oppressive regime of Orde Baru that emphasised formality and uniformity in many aspects of life.

(4) Commitment to professional development (section 8.2.3.2). The teachers’ perspectives reflect these dispositions to a large extent. Some of the teachers even stretched the idea further by requesting that: (1) they be given the chance to attend professional development programs in an English-speaking country so that they could learn and experience using English in its first language environment. This is something that many IETs could only dream about as the cost to attend such programs could be prohibitively high for teachers in general; (2) in collaborating with colleagues, professional development activities should have a social element through which members look after each other’s welfare and well-being. This desire seems to be inspired by the Indonesian concept of gotong-royong (“cooperation”) which features in many social interactions at all levels of society. It is only natural, therefore, for IETs to expect the same from their profession’s professional development or gatherings.

9.4. Conclusions

The primary objective of this study has been to explore the perspectives of IETs on PTS in the context of PSG in Indonesia. This was attempted by seeking the answer to six research questions expressed in terms of the central question: Are IETs capable of articulating their perspectives on crucial issues related to teacher professionalisation efforts and IET competencies that are recognised in the literature on SME and LTC theory?

IETs’ ability to articulate Teflindo-specific PTS is the focus of this research. Their input was sidelined during the development of SKAKG 2007 by BSNP. As far as IETs are concerned, the result has been a standards document lacking teacher authorship and
subject-specification, two of the major characteristics of the PTS documents developed internationally under the influence of SME.

The study can be said to have proven that the teachers can articulate their voices about SKAKG 2007 and the context in which it is developed and implemented. Overall, the teachers’ voices can be described in one word: progressive. This refers to their collective desire for and enthusiasm about reform, to their critical points of view about their profession, which is under systematic professionalisation efforts, and about SKAKG 2007, a PTS document which is an inseparable part of that effort, and to their fascination with the standards movement in education, which SKAKG 2007 is now a part of. The progressiveness is evident in the major outcomes of the study presented below.

First, the study has shown that IETs do have the capability to articulate PTS that reflect their beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts not only about teaching and learning in general but, more importantly, about EFL teaching and learning. As suggested by the bodies of literature on PTS and LTC theory, their perspectives were grounded in their personal experience, professional expertise, and progressive expectations. Such capability indicates their potential as contributors to educational policy formulation in Indonesia, particularly those that concern teachers.

Second, the results revealed IETs’ critical yet constructive stance about teacher professionalisation efforts initiated and implemented by the Government. The stance was articulated in the forms of appraisals and standards statements. The appraisals suggest that IETs are in support of teacher professionalisation efforts in terms of teacher professionalism in general and in Teflindo, the implementation of PTS, and PSG. The appraisals suggest that a Teflindo-specific PTS document, the development of which they would like to be part of, is desirable in the context of subject-specific PSG.

Third, the results indicated that IETs’ substantial insights into the areas of teacher knowledge, skills, and dispositions are in line with findings of international LTC studies and the major themes of EL teacher competencies stated in international PTS documents. The three areas also capture the essence of the four major competencies delineated in SKAKG 2007, namely pedagogic competencies, personal competencies, social competencies, and
professional competencies. Elements of teacher knowledge, skills, and dispositions articulated by the teachers can be identified in or inferred from each of the four competencies.

Fourth, despite some tendency to being influenced by their professional coursework experience when making their standards statements, IETs did articulate a number of ELT competency statements that the developers of SKAKG 2007 had overlooked or overgeneralised. The teachers’ standards were so Teflindo-specific that the only way to relate them to the existing standards in SKAKG 2007 was to make inferences from the generic standards, a task that was not always easy to do. The problem stems from the difficulty in establishing a link between the teachers’ specific standards and the two Subject Teachers’ Competencies for IETs in the document. Given the quality of standards the teachers’ were capable of articulating and due to their enthusiasm about PSG and SKAKG 2007, the decision by the developers of SKAKG 2007 to exclude teachers from or minimise their involvement in its development is unjustifiable. It has compromised the quality of the final product and rendered the Government’s teacher-professionalisation commitment dubious.

Fifth, the generic characteristics of SKAKG 2007 show that it was developed for regulatory purposes rather than for developmental purposes. That is, it was designed to provide a political and regulatory justification for implementing PSG as a Government program. To this end, teachers’ input for the standards was minimal, resulting in a standards document that is made for the teachers and not by them. The size of the country, the large number of teachers, the lack of coordination among IETs’ professional organisations at the national level, and the urgent need to implement UU Sisdiknas 2003 and UUGD 2005 are the reasons given by several key informants as to why it was more efficient to commission the experts to develop the standards. Without substantive teacher contribution and involvement, SKAKG 2007—and PSG for that matter—could have the potential to become a means for the Government to continue to treat teachers as aparatur negara ‘State apparatuses’ rather than as pendidik profesional ‘professional educators’ in the truest sense of the phrase.
Sixth, the teachers’ articulated standards should not be viewed just as statements about what they thought they should have or be competent in. More importantly, their standards should be viewed as their expectations for the stakeholders of education other than themselves to provide them in the form of pre-service training (teacher preparation) and in-service education (professional development).

Seventh, if the teachers’ perspectives show that they failed to mention, lacked an understanding of, or articulated something uniquely Indonesian or even personal about any aspect of teacher professionalism and teacher competencies, then there is an opportunity for further professional engagement. Their perceived failure or lack of understanding means that they are in need of teacher professional development programs, and their uniquely Indonesian or personal perspectives mean, among other things, that their perspectives may need to be accommodated in future Teflindo-specific PTS documents.

Finally, despite the shortcomings of *SKAKG 2007*—and those of *PSG*—there remains huge potential for its further development, and these were articulated or supported by a number of key informants as well. The most important potential for IETs and the Teflindo community at large can be identified as follows: There is the possibility to revise and elaborate the specific yet limited PTS for IETs in *SKAKG 2007* into a fully-fledged Teflindo-specific PTS document in the context of *PSG*, with the Teflindo community being significantly or fully in charge of its development. I envisage this to be an entry point for the Teflindo community to empower itself, to have a firm say about the future direction of the profession that it has so far been too reluctant to assert. If this professional movement is successful, it could inspire other teacher organisations in Indonesia to follow suit, and spark teacher development reforms in Indonesia from within the profession itself.

### 9.5 Recommendations

In this section, I will propose a number of recommendations based on the findings of the study. They are put forward in terms of policy initiatives, and theoretical implications, and suggestions for future studies.
9.5.1 Policy Initiatives

As a PTS document, *SKAKG 2007* is far from being perfect due to the intrinsic problems of teacher authorship, teacher ownership, and subject-specification of both Teachers’ Core Competencies and Subject Teachers’ Competencies that it contains. However, the major findings of this study show that there is room for improvements in the future, including:

1. A shift in attitude on the part of educational policy makers (e.g. *BSNP*) from centralised and exclusive policy-formulation and policy-making to *fully decentralised and participatory policy-formulation and policy-making* in which teachers’ perspectives are regarded and treated as valuable input. This shift should be considered for adoption in future revisions of both *SKAKG 2007* and *PSG* regulatory documents;

2. The shift mentioned above should go hand in hand with a *teacher empowerment move* from the formulation stage to the implementation stage. Teachers or teacher representatives should be involved in the major steps taken at various stages. For example, to revise *SKAKG 2007* and make it Teflindo-specific, a sufficient number of IETs or their representatives from all over Indonesia should be consulted when the standards are formulated, drafted, revised, redrafted, and finalised. To improve the implementation of *PSG* and make it Teflindo specific for IETs, their highly-accomplished representatives should be involved in the assessment process at least. The current practice in which university lecturers, many of whom have not been certified as “Professional Educators” themselves, assess school teachers undertaking certification does send the wrong message that lecturers know better about school teaching than school teachers themselves;

3. What this study has achieved is unprecedented because, aside from the two-sentence, Subject Teachers’ Competencies for IETs in *SKAKG 2007*, detailed, Teflindo-specific PTS have never been formulated until now. My personal view is that should Teflindo as the ELT profession in Indonesia be eager to develop their own PTS, the members should make it part of the long-term agenda of the profession. What can be done now is to initiate discussions at the grassroots level and spread the idea regionally and then nationally. Most of the sixty-six teacher respondents of this study, and most of the key
informants, including several prominent members of TEFLIN, have given their support for such discussions. TEFLIN’s annual conferences might be the right place to start. However, this is not an easy task to do. One of the obstacles might come from the national and regional governments and key stakeholders in Indonesia, including religious leaders, who need to be convinced to hand this sort of responsibility to the profession;

4. The Indonesian Government’s employee ranking system (see section A of Table 9.2 below) needs to take into account the subject-specific, standards-based teacher credentialing system proposed by the present study (see section B of Table 9.2).

**Table 9.2** Proposed teacher credentialing system, incorporating Jalal et al.’s (2009, p. 192) proposition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Professional Title (Teachers only)</th>
<th>Civil-Service Title (PNS only)</th>
<th>Years*</th>
<th>Stage**</th>
<th>Stage***</th>
<th>Program****</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4/e</td>
<td>Guru Utama (Grand Chief Teacher)</td>
<td>Pembina Utama (Grand Superintendent)</td>
<td>+30</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>CERTIFICATION (PSG)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/d</td>
<td>Guru Utama Madya (Senior Chief Teacher)</td>
<td>Pembina Utama Madya (Senior Grand Superintendent)</td>
<td>+30</td>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>“Professional Educator Certificate”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/c</td>
<td>Guru Utama Muda (Junior Chief Teacher)</td>
<td>Pembina Utama Muda (Junior Grand Superintendent)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Accomplished</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>Induction***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/b</td>
<td>Guru Pembina Tingkat I (Head Teacher Level 1)</td>
<td>Pembina Tingkat I (Superintendent Level 1)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td>Novice/Probation</td>
<td>Licensure Pre-service Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/a</td>
<td>Guru Pembina (Head Teacher)</td>
<td>Pembina (Superintendent)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/d</td>
<td>Guru Dewasa Tingkat I (Senior Teacher Level 1)</td>
<td>Penata Tingkat I (Leader Level 1)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/c</td>
<td>Guru Dewasa (Senior Teacher)</td>
<td>Penata (Leader)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/b</td>
<td>Guru Madya Tingkat I (Junior Teacher Level 1)</td>
<td>Penata Muda Tingkat I (Junior Leader Level 1)</td>
<td>5–6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/a</td>
<td>Guru Madya (Junior Teacher)</td>
<td>Penata Muda (Junior Leader)</td>
<td>2–5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*S1/D4 qualification holders attending 1-year Pre-service Education after undertaking 1-year SM3T Program.

*Approximate only; teachers’ promotion is not determined by their length of service but by attainment of credit points.
**According to the literature on professional teaching standards, e.g. NSW Institute of Teachers (NSWIT) (2010)
****The proposal of the present study, incorporating the current employment ranking system and other proposals.

1 The English version of the Professional Titles and Civil-Service Titles in Table 9.2 is my own translation.
Section A in Table 9.2 shows that the highest level that teachers with a *PNS* (civil servant) status can reach is the 4/e rank with the *Guru Utama* (Grand Chief Teacher) and *Pembina Utama* (Grand Superintendent) titles, and the lowest is the 3/a rank with the *Guru Madya* (Junior Teacher) and *Penata Muda* (Junior Leader) titles. Newly recruited in-service teachers (ranked 3/a) enter the profession with an undergraduate (S1) or four-year diploma (D4) qualification. (At present, new S1/D4 holders are required to undertake the one-year *SM3T* program and the new one-year pre-service education program before they qualify for a teacher selection.)

Generally, it takes an in-service teacher an average of 3.66 years to move up from one rank to the next (e.g. from 3/c to 3/d or 4/d to 4/e) and a total of over 30 years to reach the highest rank (4/e) before his or her retirement. Administrative in nature and independent of the *PSG* (teacher certification programs), this ranking system has been in place for a long time, long before the *PSG* began in 2007. The rank awarding procedures in this system rely heavily on teachers' ability to attain the credit points which make them eligible for moving up from one rank to the next. The credit points are earned from teaching, attending professional development activities, developing teaching materials, getting involved in school events, etc.

Based on the findings of the present study, I am proposing an incorporation of the *PSG* outcomes into the ranking system, thereby synergising the professional and administrative aspects of teacher employment in a single career promotion scheme.

As shown in section B of Table 9.2, the present study recommends the distinction between “teacher licensure” and “teacher certification” under the umbrella term “teacher credentialing.” Licensure applies only to pre-service teacher recruitment, and certification to in-service teachers who have been in the profession for at least five years. My proposal is that the one-year *SM3T* program and the one-year Pre-service Education program be incorporated into the Teacher Licensure Program. Successful candidates of this program should then be inducted to the teaching profession and

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2 *Sarjana Mendidik di Daerah Terdepan, Terluar, dan Tertinggal (SM3T)* [Graduates Teaching in Border, Frontier, and Less-Developed Areas]
granted the 3/a or 3/b ranks and the relevant titles. These are comparable to the stages of “Novice/Probation” (Jalal et al., 2009, p. 192) and “Beginning” (NSWIT, 2010).

After spending 5 years in the teaching profession, a teacher is then considered competent and becomes eligible for the first time to take part in the Teacher Certification Program (PSG) as a Professional Educator. He or she does this in order to earn first the 3/b rank and then the 3/c or 3/d ranks plus the relevant titles. These should be comparable to the titles of “Junior” (Jalal et al. 2009) and “Competent” or “Accomplished” (NSWIT, 2010). It is important to note that earning these ranks and titles is subject to the teachers’ lengths of service.

After this, teachers should pass certification processes to move up to the higher stages to earn the ranks 4/a, 4/b, and 4/c or “Senior” (Jalal et al. 2009) or “Leadership” (NSWIT, 2010). Other certification processes are required if teachers are to move up the career ladder to earn the ranks 4/d and 4/e or “Master” (Jalal et al., 2009) or “Leadership” (NSWIT, 2010).

An important part of this proposal is that this should apply to all teachers working for both the government teachers (those with a PNS status) and those employed by private institutions or foundations.

9.5.2 Theoretical Implications

As a new addition to the body of literature on professional teaching standards (PTS) and that on LTC theory, this study has addressed the question: What should we do with the rich body of knowledge we now have about what EL teachers think, know, and believe in ways that are accessible to them that they could use to improve their professionalism and competencies?

None of the LTC studies reviewed in Chapter 3, not even Woods (1996) and Borg’s (2006b) seminal works have addressed this critical question. In this study, I have been able to answer the question by channeling the teacher respondents’, as well as most of the key informants’, collective wish that IETs’ thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about the various aspects of teaching EFL in Indonesia be formulated and documented. There are certainly many ways to document these, but the teachers and key informants agreed overwhelmingly
that the best way is to formulate them as standards statements and then document them in a standards document. Many of the teachers and key informants were very enthusiastic about the copies of PTS documents from around the world and SKAKG 2007 which I discussed with them during my data generation activities. I have stated earlier that I could not reject their request to lend them the documents to be photocopied. The standards documents could become the most accessible materials that they could use in reflecting on their practice and professional development. Therefore, this study has given LTC a new dimension, that is, the importance of making the information containing IETs’ cognitions accessible to IETs across the board.

At the same time, this study has also confirmed the question that can be inferred from the literature on PTS. The question is: What is it about EL teachers’ perspectives that makes it necessary to consult them in developing PTS?

There are multiple answers to this question, with the issue of “teacher empowerment” (as expressed in the title of this thesis: “giving teachers' their voices”) being one of them. However, none of the materials referred to in the literature review on PTS in Chapter 3 has come up with a rationale on the basis of LTC theory to justify teachers’ involvement in the development of the PTS document.

The rich perspectives I was able to obtain from the teachers, in particular, should attest to two sets of constructs. The first set is the four dimensions of teacher cognition, i.e. schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice (including classroom practicum), and contextual factors which Borg (2006b, p. 41) proposes. The second set is the three “elements and processes” in LTC, i.e. schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors, which includes classroom practice and practice teaching (Borg, 2006b, p. 283). The theoretical evidence generated from the perspectives of the teachers reflects these dimensions, elements, and processes of LTC, and it should be sufficient reason to address the question.
9.6 Limitations of the Study

This study has provided detailed information about IETs’ perspectives on PTS in the context of PSG in Indonesia. The results have shown that the teachers are generally capable of articulating their beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts about teacher professionalisation efforts, teacher competencies (knowledge, skills, and dispositions). Nevertheless, the study has some limitations.

Findings from this study may not be generalisable to all parts of Indonesia because it involved IETs from three urban areas rather than rural or remote parts of Indonesia. Data were generated from IETs in the cities and not from those working in Indonesia’s districts, sub-districts, and villages or remote places (e.g. mountains and islands).

Each of the cities is renowned all over Indonesia as a kota pelajar (“city of education”), thanks primarily to their having tens, if not hundreds, of state and private educational institutions at all levels. These institutions combined are attended by hundreds of thousands, maybe even millions, of students from within the cities and the surrounding regions or provinces.

More importantly, the cities are home to some of the best higher education institutions offering teacher education and training in all academic areas, particularly ELT. IETs in these cities are among the most active in Indonesia in terms of EL teacher professional organisation activities. Padang is the base for IETA, Malang for TEFLIN, and Makassar for a few others. The teachers join MGMP activities and attend local, regional, national or international conferences, seminars, and workshops conducted in their respective cities. Therefore, unlike teachers in the regions and remote areas, the teachers in this study had relatively better access to information, resources, and academic activities, professional development programs, and further studies—even though some of them did complain that they lacked these, too.

Given these details, it can be inferred that the sixty-six teachers were more knowledgeable about their profession and practice, and perhaps understood such things as their rights and obligations better than their counterparts in other parts of the country. This could have made the teachers more articulate and critical about Government educational
policies such as SKAKG 2007 and PSG. Their perspectives could have been influenced by their having all the advantages mentioned above in comparison with those in the regions and remote areas. It would have been ideal to obtain a balanced or comparative view of the teachers’ perspectives on both SKAKG 2007 and the ideal PTS for future development generated by interviewing IETs working in the rural and remote areas.

Given the above circumstances, the findings of the study should be interpreted with these limitations in mind.

9.7 Suggestions for Future Studies

Given the limitations of the study, I suggest that further studies be conducted in either the area of PTS or that of LTC, or both, that:

- In order to obtain balanced perspectives both on SKAKG 2007 and the ideal PTS for IETs, IETs working in rural or remote areas of Indonesia should be consulted;
- Gain the perspectives from a wider spectrum of Teflindo stakeholders that, as per the teachers’ input presented in Chapter 5, include ELT experts, non-ELT specialists, national and local level education personnel, teacher educators, teacher trainers, students, principals, members of the society (e.g. parents, school committee members), industries, private EL instructors, and politicians;
- Obtain IETs’ perspectives on the findings of studies such as the present one;
- Assuming that Teflindo-specific PTS have been developed, gain information about how IETs use Teflindo-specific PTS for developmental purposes such as for reflecting on their own or a colleague’s practice, or for conducting classroom action research to improve teaching and learning outcomes;
- Assuming that Teflindo-specific PTS have been developed and used in IET credentialing programs, obtain information about IETs’ experiences in using Teflindo-specific PTS for regulatory purposes;
- Assuming that Teflindo-specific PTS have been developed, gain information about whether or not EL teacher education institutions such as UNM, UNP, and UM develop their ELT trainees’ professionalism, knowledge, skills, and dispositions.
In summary, this thesis has gone some way towards establishing that IETs have the knowledge, skills, and desire to contribute to the development of Teflindo-specific professional teaching standards. Through consideration of the findings here, and a commitment to continuing the process in the ways suggested above, we can truly hope to “give teachers their voices”.


Doecke, B. (2004). Accomplished story telling: English teachers write about their professional lives (The standards for teachers of English language and literacy in


Ontario College of Teachers (OCT). (2012a). *Development of professional standards* (pp. 1–6). Toronto, Ontario: OCT.


Ontario College of Teachers (OCT). (2012c). *The standards of practice for the teaching profession and the ethical standards for the teaching profession*. (pp. 1–3). Toronto, Ontario: OCT.


Appendix 1

Teachers’ Core Competencies
and Subject Teachers’ Competencies
(Translated and Adapted from Attachments A and B
of SKAKG 2007)

REGULATION OF THE MINISTER OF NATIONAL EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF INDONESIA, NUMBER 16 YEAR 2007
ON TEACHERS’ ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS AND COMPETENCY STANDARDS

A. ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION STANDARDS FOR TEACHERS

1. Teachers’ Academic Qualifications Obtained through Formal Education

The qualifications of teachers in formal education units comprising ECE Centres, Kindergartens, and Islamic Kindergartens (PAUD/TK/RA), primary schools/madrasahs¹ (SD/MI), junior high school/madrasahs (SMP/MTs), senior high schools/madrasahs (SMA/MA), special education primary, junior high, and senior high schools (SDLB/SMPLB/SMALB), and senior vocational high schools/madrasahs (SMK/MAK) are as follows:

a. PAUD/TK/RA Teachers:
   Teachers of PAUD/TK/RA must have the minimum academic qualification of four-year diploma (D4) or bachelor’s degree (S1) in the fields of early childhood education or psychology obtained from an accredited study program.

b. SD/MI Teachers:
   Teachers of SD/MI or equivalent must have the minimum academic qualification of four-year diploma (D4) or bachelor’s degree (S1) in the fields of primary education (PGSD/PGMI) or psychology obtained from an accredited study program.

c. SMP/MTs Teachers:
   Teachers of SMP/MTs or equivalent must have the minimum academic qualification of four-year diploma (D4) or bachelor’s degree (S1) in a field of study relevant to the subject they teach, and obtained from an accredited study program.

d. SMA/MA Teachers:
   Teachers of SMA/MA or equivalent must have the minimum academic qualification of four-year diploma (D4) or bachelor’s degree (S1) in a field of study relevant to the subject they teach, and obtained from an accredited study program.

e. SDLB/SMPLB/SMALB Teachers:
   Teachers of SDLB/SMPLB/SMALB or equivalent must have the minimum academic qualification of four-year diploma (D4) or bachelor’s degree (S1) in the field of special education or a bachelor’s degree in a field of study relevant to the subject they teach, and obtained from an accredited study program.

¹ A madrasah is an Islamic school offering general education and Islamic religious teachings to Muslim students.
² Pendidikan Guru Madrasah Ibtidaiyah [Primary Madrasah Teacher Education]
f. **SMK/MAK Teachers**

Teachers of SMK/MAK or equivalent must have the minimum academic qualification of four-year diploma (D4) or bachelor’s degree (S1) in a field of study relevant to the subject they teach, and obtained from an accredited study program.

2. **Teachers’ Academic Qualifications Obtained through a Fit-and-Proper and Equalisation Test**

The academic qualifications required for the recruitment of teachers of unique subjects that are urgently needed yet undeveloped in tertiary institutions may be obtained through a fit-and-proper and equalisation test. This test for an individual with non-qualified expertise is conducted by a tertiary institution authorised for that purpose.

**B. COMPETENCY STANDARDS FOR TEACHERS**

The competency standards for teachers are developed thoroughly based on four sets of major competencies for teachers, namely pedagogic competencies, personal competencies, social competencies, and professional competencies. These four sets of competencies are integrated in a teacher’s performance.

The competency standards for teachers consist of teachers’ core competencies that are developed into the competencies of teachers of PAUD/TK/RA, class teachers\(^3\) of SD/MI, and subject teachers\(^4\) of SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA, and SMK/MAK, which are described as follows.

\(^3\) Teachers who are in charge of one class of students in a primary school/madrasah for the duration of one academic year.

\(^4\) Teachers who teach a subject in a school/madrasah.
Tables 1 and 2 are not relevant to IETs.

Table 3: Competency Standards for Subject Teachers\(^5\) in SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA, SMK/MAK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. (Code)(^6)</th>
<th>Teachers’ Core Competencies</th>
<th>Subject Teachers’ Competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic Competencies [The teacher…](^7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Ped1)</td>
<td>Is familiar with the physical, moral, social, cultural, emotional, and intellectual aspects of students’ characteristics;</td>
<td>1.1 Understands students’ characteristics in relation to their physical, intellectual, social-emotional, moral, spiritual, and social-cultural backgrounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Identifies students’ potentials in the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.3 Identifies students’ prior knowledge/skills in the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.4 Identifies the difficulties faced by students in the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (Ped2)</td>
<td>Is knowledgeable of the theory of learning and the principles of educational teaching;</td>
<td>2.1 Understands various theories of learning and teaching principles in relation to the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2 Applies various approaches, strategies, methods, and teaching techniques in the subject creatively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (Ped3)</td>
<td>Develops the curriculum related to his/her subject or field of development;</td>
<td>3.1 Understands the principles of curriculum development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.2 Sets teaching objectives of the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3 Uses relevant learning experience to achieve teaching objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.4 Selects teaching materials by incorporating learning experience and teaching objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.5 Arranges teaching materials properly according to the chosen approach and students’ characteristics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.6 Develops assessment indicators and instruments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (Ped4)</td>
<td>Conducts educational teaching;</td>
<td>4.1 Understands the principles of planning educational teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.2 Develops the components of teaching plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.3 Arranges complete teaching plans for the classroom, laboratory, or field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.4 Carries out teaching in a classroom, laboratory, or field keeping in mind security standards required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.5 Uses relevant teaching media and learning resources according to students’ characteristics and the subject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^5\) Including IETs.
\(^6\) Created for the purpose of this thesis only; not in the original document.
\(^7\) These words are not in the original document.
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in order to achieve the teaching objectives in whole. Makes transactional decisions in the subject according to the situations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (Ped5)</td>
<td>Uses information and communication technology [ICT\textsuperscript{8}] for teaching;</td>
<td>5.1 Uses ICT in the teaching the subject.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 6 (Ped6) | Facilitates the development of students in actualising their potentials. | 6.2 Provides various learning activities to encourage students to excel.  
6.3 Provides various learning activities to help students actualise their potentials, including creativity. |
| 7 (Ped7) | Communicates with students in an effective, empathetic, and courteous manner; | 7.1 Understands various effective, empathetic, and courteous communication strategies in speech, writing, and other forms.  
7.2 Communicates effectively, empathetically, and courteously with students in a style that allows for interactive activities/games so that a cyclical process can move from (a) preparing students’ psychological conditions to take part in the game through persuasion and examples, (b) invitation for students to participate, (c) students’ response to the invitation, to (d) teacher’s reaction to students’ response, and so on. |
| 8 (Ped8) | Conducts assessments and evaluation of learning processes and outcomes; | 8.1 Understands the principles of assessment and evaluation of learning process and outcomes according to the characteristics of the subject.  
8.2 Determines aspects of the learning process and outcomes to be assessed and evaluated according to the characteristics of the subject.  
8.3 Determines the procedures of assessment and evaluation of the learning process and outcomes.  
8.4 Develops assessment and evaluation instruments for the learning process and outcomes.  
8.5 Administers assessment and evaluation of learning process and outcomes continually.  
8.6 Analyses the results of assessment of the learning process and outcomes.  
8.7 Conducts an evaluation of the learning process and outcomes. |

\textsuperscript{8} This abbreviation is not used in the original document.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ped9</th>
<th>Uses assessment and evaluation results for teaching purposes;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.1.</td>
<td>Uses the information from assessment and evaluation to determine students’ accomplishment of learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2.</td>
<td>Uses the information from assessment and evaluation to design remedial and enrichment programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.3.</td>
<td>Communicates the results of assessment and evaluation to stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.4.</td>
<td>Makes use of the information of assessment and evaluation results to improve the quality of teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ped10</td>
<td>Conducts reflective actions to improve the quality of teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>Reflects on the teaching that have been carried out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>Uses reflection outcomes to improve and develop teaching of the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>Carries out classroom action research [CAR] to improve the quality of teaching in the subject.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Personal Competencies [The teacher…]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Per1</th>
<th>Behaves according to the religious, legal, social, and cultural norms of Indonesia;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>Respects students without any discrimination based on beliefs, ethnicity, customs, origins, and gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>Bestirs herself according to the religion she adhered to, legal and social norms in the society, and to the culture of a pluralistic Indonesia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per2</td>
<td>Conduces himself/herself as an honest personality, a person of integrity, and a role model for students and society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>Behaves honestly, firmly and humanely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>Behaves in manners that reflect his piety and integrity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>Behaves in manners that are exemplary for students and the society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per3</td>
<td>Conducts himself/herself as a firm, stable, mature, wise, mature, and dignified person;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>Behaves as a person with solid and stable personality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>Behaves as a mature, wise, and charismatic person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per4</td>
<td>Demonstrates work ethics, high sense of responsibility, pride as a teacher, and self-confidence;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>Demonstrates high work ethics and responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>Is proud of and self-confident in being a teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>Works independently and professionally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per5</td>
<td>Uplifts the code of conducts of the teaching profession;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>Understands the ethical codes of the teaching profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>Applies the ethical codes of the teaching profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>Behaves in accordance with the ethical codes of the teaching profession.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9 This abbreviation is not used in the original document.
### Social Competencies [The teacher…]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>(Soc1)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 16  | Acts in an inclusive and objective way, and refrains himself/herself from discriminatory actions on the basis of gender, religion, race, physical condition, family backgrounds, and socio-economic status; | 16.1 In teaching, bestirs herself inclusively and objectively towards students, colleagues, and the society.  
16.2 Does not discriminate students, colleagues, parents, and the society on the basis of religion, ethnicity, gender, family backgrounds, and socio-economic status. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>(Soc2)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 17  | Communicates effectively, empathetically, and courteously with fellow teachers, school staff, parents, and community; | 17.1 Communicates with colleagues and members of scientific communities courteously, empathetically, and effectively.  
17.2 Communicates courteously, empathetically, and effectively with students’ parents and the society regarding teaching programs and students’ progress.  
17.3 Involves students’ parents and the society in teaching programs and in solving students’ learning problems. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>(Soc3)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 18  | Is able to adapt to his/her post of duty in any part of the Republic of Indonesia which is socially and culturally diverse. | 18.1 Adapts with the environment of the school in order to increase effectiveness as a teacher.  
18.2 Carries out various programs at the school’s location in order to develop and improve the quality of education in the neighbourhood. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>(Soc4)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 19  | Communicates with his/her own or other professional communities orally, in writing, or other means. | 19.1 Communicates with colleagues and the scientific/professional communities through various media in order to improve learning quality.  
19.2 Communicates products of teaching innovations to own professional communities orally or in writing or in other forms. |

### Professional Competencies [The teacher…]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>(Pro1)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Knows the material, structure, concepts, and scientific paradigm supporting his/her subject;</td>
<td>The subject teachers’ competencies for each of the subject teachers are presented after this table.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>(Pro2)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 21  | Possesses the standard competencies and basic competencies of teaching his/her subject. | 21.1 Understands the competency standards in the subject.  
21.2 Understands the basic competencies in the subject.  
21.3 Understands the teaching goals of the subject. |

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10 See next page.
| 22 (Pro3) | Develops the materials for his/her subject. | 22.1 | Selects the teaching materials in accordance with students’ levels of development.  
22.2 | Develops the teaching materials creatively according to students’ levels of development. |
| 23 (Pro4) | Maintains continual professional development by conducting reflective activities. | 23.1 | Reflects on her performance continually.  
23.2 | Uses her own reflections in improving professionalism.  
23.3 | Conducts CAR to improve professionalism.  
23.4 | Updates knowledge of latest development using various sources. |
| 24 (Pro5) | Uses information and communication technology for communication and self-development | 24.1 | Uses ICTs in communication.  
24.2 | Uses ICTs in developing own potentials. |

Teachers’ Core Competency number 20\(^\text{11}\) (Pro1) for each of the subject teachers is elaborated into the following (Subject Teachers’ Competencies):

No. 1: Religious Education Teachers’ Competencies (2 standards each)  
No. 2: Civics Education Teachers’ Competencies (3 standards)  
No. 3: Cultural Arts Teachers’ Competencies (2 standards)  
No. 4: Physical Education, Sports, and Health Teachers’ Competencies (9 standards)  
No. 5: Mathematics Teachers’ Competencies (13 standards)  
No. 6: ICT Teachers’ Competencies (16 standards)  
No. 7: Natural Sciences Teachers’ Competencies (14 standards)  
No. 8: Biology Teachers’ Competencies (14 standards)  
No. 9: Physics Teachers’ Competencies (14 standards)  
No. 10: Chemistry Teachers’ Competencies (14 standards)  
No. 11: Social Sciences Teachers’ Competencies (4 standards)  
No. 12: Economics Teachers’ Competencies (3 standards)  
No. 13: Sociology Teachers’ Competencies (3 standards)  
No. 14: Anthropology Teachers’ Competencies (3 standards)  
No. 15: Geography Teachers’ Competencies (4 standards)  
No. 16: History Teachers’ Competencies (4 standards)  
No. 17: Indonesian Language Teachers’ Competencies (4 standards)  
No. 18: Foreign Language Teachers’ Competencies\(\text{12}\) (2 standards each):

\textbf{18.1. English Language Teachers’ Competencies:}\(\text{13}\)

\textit{\textbf{a.}} Have the knowledge of the various linguistic aspects of English (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategies);\(\text{14}\)

\(^{11}\) This is coded as Pro1 in the present study.  
\(^{12}\) The competencies of all foreign language teachers (English, Arabic, German, French, Japan, and Mandarin) are identical.  
\(^{13}\) Specifically for those teaching in SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA, and SMK/MAK; referred to as ELT Competencies in the thesis.  
\(^{14}\) The letter [a] is used to mark this first standards statement, but it is not used in the original document.
b. \( ^{15} \) Have command in spoken and written English, receptively and productively, and in the various communicative aspects of English (linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategies).

18.2. Arabic Teachers’ Competencies.
18.3. German Teachers’ Competencies.
18.4. French Teachers’ Competencies.
18.5. Japanese Teachers’ Competencies.
18.6. Mandarin Teachers’ Competencies.

Issued in Jakarta on May 4\(^{\text{th}}\), 2007

Minister of National Education,

(Signature)

Bambang Sudibyo

\( ^{15} \) The letter \([b]\) is used to mark this second standards statement, but it is not used in the original document.
Appendix 2

Amendments to the Educational Provisions in UUD 1945 (Indonesian National Constitution)

UUD 1945 stands for Undang-undang Dasar Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 1945 (Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia Year 1945). After the demise of the Soeharto Regime in the late 1990s, Article 31 on education in UUD 1945 was amended from the two clauses below:

(1) Every citizen has the right to an education.
(2) The government organizes and implements a national system, to be regulated by law.

(AHRC, 2011)

into the following four clauses:

(1) Each citizen has the right to an education.****
(2) Each citizen is obliged to follow elementary education and the government has the duty to fund this.****
(3) The government organizes and implements a national education system, to be regulated by law, that aims at enhancing religious and pious feelings as well as moral excellence with a view to upgrading national life.****
(4) The state shall give priority to the education budget by allocating at least twenty percent of the state's as well as of the regional budgets to meet the requirements of implementing national education.****
(5) The government advances science and technology along with holding religious values and national unity in high esteem with a view to promoting civilization as well as the well-being of humanity.***

(AHRC, 2011)

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16 The four stars signify the Fourth Amendment on 9 November 2011 (AHRC, 2011)
17 The three stars signify the Third Amendment on 11 August 2002 (AHRC, 2011)
### Appendix 3

#### Comparison between *UU Sisdiknas 1989* and *UU Sisdiknas 2003*

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18 A tick means stated explicitly.
19 Not available.
Appendix 4

Two of Four Major Reforms in *UU Sisdiknas 2003: Decentralisation and Public Participation*

1. Decentralisation

As stipulated in *UU Sisdiknas 2003* is to do mainly with two areas: educational funding and the curricula. Unlike in the old system where the Government was responsible for funding education in all public (state) *satuan pendidikan* ‘units of education’—any forms of educational service where education is provided)—educational funding in the current system is a collective responsibility. It is shared among the Central Government, the local governments of *kabupaten* (regencies or districts) and *kota* (municipalities), and society (including students’ families). The most important aspect of the reform in this area is the stipulation that the Government has an obligation to allocate at least 20% of its national budget for education. The governments of *kabupaten* and *kota* have the same obligation—allocating a minimum of 20% of their regional budgets for education.

As for the curricula, particularly those of the basic and secondary education, the current system stipulates that they be developed by each individual or group of units of education (i.e. schools and *madrasahs*). The curriculum development for schools is under the supervision of the local Education Offices (*Dinas Pendidikan*) of *kabupaten* and *kota*, and for the *madrasahs* it is under the Ministry of Religious Affairs Offices (*Kantor Kementerian Agama*). The curricula are referred to as *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*, (*KTSP*) [Unit of Education-/School-Based Curricula]. Despite criticisms leveled against it, the *KBK* is a reform-driven type of curriculum, quite the opposite of the national curricula used during the pre-Reformasi era.

2. Public Participation

In the current system this refers to the involvement of members of the public in the promotion of the quality of educational services. For example, in the old system, the public was involved officially at the national level within *Badan Pertimbangan Pendidikan*
Nasional (BPPN) [National Education Advisory Body] whose members were selected from national public figures. The members’ duty was to give the Government suggestions, advice, and ideas in relation to education. In the current system under UU Sisdiknas 2003, members of the public are involved in two independent institutions, namely Council of Education (Dewan Pendidikan) at the national, provincial, district, and municipal levels and School/Madrasah Committee (Komite Sekolah/Madrasah) at the unit of education level. Both institutions consist of local public figures and parents, and are established to enable members of the public to take part in the enhancement of education in terms of planning, supervision, and evaluation of educational programs. The duties of Dewan Pendidikan and Komite Sekolah/Madrasah members are to provide considerations, guidance, assistance, facilities, and educational supervision.
Appendix 5

Units, Levels, Types, and Sectors of Education in UU Sisdiknas 1989 and UU Sisdiknas 2003

UU Sisdiknas stands for Undang-undang tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (Law on National Education System). UU Sisdiknas 1989 was enacted during the centralised 32-year leadership of President Soeharto, and UU Sisdiknas 2003 was enacted at the beginning of the Reformasi (reform) era which began in 1997.

In the following sections, the two pieces of legislation are compared and contrasted in terms of units, levels, types, and sectors of education.

1. Units of Education
UU Sisdiknas 1989 and UU Sisdiknas 2003 have different definitions of units of education. In UU Sisdiknas 1989, they are defined as institutions that “carry out teaching-learning activities in school or non-school environments.” In UU Sisdiknas 2003, their definition is “groups of educational services providing education in the formal, non-formal and informal sectors at each level and in each type of education” (SSRI, 2003, p. 2; Tr.). For example, under UU Sisdiknas 2003, units of education include (but are not limited to):

- daycare centres (taman penitipan anak);
- playgroups (kelompok bermain);
- kindergartens (taman kanak-kanak);
- primary schools (sekolah dasar);
- junior high schools (sekolah menengah pertama);
- senior high schools (sekolah menengah atas);
- Islamic-based schools (madrasah);
- religion-specific study centres (e.g. pesantren and pendidikan diniyah [Islam]);
- courses (kursus);
- training centres (pusat pelatihan);
- study groups/clubs (kelompok studi);
- community learning centres (pusat kegiatan belajar masyarakat);
- Islamic learning groups (majlis taklims);

Other centres include pasraman and pesantian (Hindu), pabajja samanera (Buddhism), shuyuan (Confucianism), and equivalent Protestant and Catholic units of education (SSRI, 2007).
• academies (akademi);
• polytechnics (politeknik);
• colleges (sekolah tinggi);
• institutes (institute);
• universities (universitas).

(SSRI, 2003; 2010)

2. Levels of Education
Levels of education are defined differently in UU Sisdiknas 1989 and in UU Sisdiknas 2003. The 1989 law defines levels of education as “stages in sustainable education determined based on participants’ stages of development as well as the breadth and depth of the materials.” UU Sisdiknas 2003 defines them as “stages of education determined according to participants’ stages of development, the objectives, and the competencies.” It can be seen that UU Sisdiknas 2003 has an emphasis on achieving objectives and developing the participants’ competencies at a certain level, rather than just the teacher and students being involved in teaching-learning activities and completing the teaching materials.

Under the category of levels of education, each unit of education is categorised by UU Sisdiknas 2003 as a basic education, secondary education, or tertiary education. In these categories, the basic level is primary education, the intermediate level is secondary education, and the advanced level is tertiary education. It is compulsory to complete education at one level before proceeding to the next.

Primary education is defined as a basis for secondary education. However, in lieu of the Government’s nine-year compulsory education policy (Firman & Tola, 2008, p. 71), unlike in the past, it now consists of two parts, i.e. primary schools and junior secondary schools24. Also, it may be preceded by an ECE program, which receives official support but is not yet recognised as a separate level of education (Rusmayadi, personal communication, 25–26 April 2011).

Meanwhile, secondary education is defined as a continuation from primary education and, in the new system, comprises only senior high schools.

Tertiary education is a continuation from secondary education, and comprises educational programs for diploma, bachelor, master’s, specialist, and doctorate qualifications. This level of education is characterised by the Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi (Three Domains of Higher Education) consisting of teaching (and learning), research, and community services.

24 This point will also be elaborated in another section.
The units of education where the teacher-respondents of this study were working belong to the basic and secondary levels of education. The next section describes the types of education in the system and points out what types of education the teacher-respondents were working in.

3. Types of Education
Each unit of education belongs to one of seven jenis pendidikan (types of education). In UU Sisdiknas 1989, they are defined as pendidikan umum (general education); pendidikan kejuruan (vocational education); pendidikan luar biasa (special education); pendidikan kedinasan (civil service education); pendidikan keagamaan (religious education); pendidikan akademik (academic education); and pendidikan profesi (professional education). In the current UU Sisdiknas 2003, the seven types of education are simplified by dissolving civil service education into professional education and adding tertiary level vocational education.

The types of education are further defined as follows:

- General education comprises primary and secondary education aimed at broadening the knowledge of the participant before pursuing education at a higher level;
- Vocational education is secondary education aimed at preparing the participant to work in a certain occupation;
- Academic education is tertiary education for pursuing an undergraduate or postgraduate degree aimed at developing the participant’s mastery of a certain discipline of knowledge;
- Professional education is post-tertiary education aimed at preparing the participant for an occupation with a special skills requirement;
- Tertiary vocational education is undergraduate level education aimed at developing the participant’s applied skills in a certain field;
- Religious education is education at primary, secondary or tertiary level preparing the participant to take up a role requiring mastery of religious teachings and/or to become an expert in religious studies;
- Special education is primary and secondary education conducted in an inclusive manner for the participant who has a disability or extraordinary intelligence. A related type of education is special service education which is provided for students in remote areas or disaster zones, or students who are economically disadvantaged.

(Explanation to UU Sisdiknas 2003, SSRI, 2003, p. 27; Tr.)
The teachers who took part in this study were working in units of education belonging to the category of general education (SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA) and vocational education (SMK). The schools and madrasahs and other units of education are described in the next section under the category of sectors of education.

When the laws are compared further, however, there are things about units of education in *UU Sisdiknas 1989* that have been improved in *UU Sisdiknas 2003*. As the following descriptions show, the improvement makes *UU Sisdiknas 2003* more comprehensive and accommodating in the spirit of reform.

The descriptions below begin with *satuan pendidikan* (units of education), a phrase that appears around 117 times in both laws—much more than any of the other three categories, namely, *jalur, jenjang, and jenis pendidikan* (sectors, levels, and types of education).

4. Sectors of Education: Formal Education

In *UU Sisdiknas 2003*, the classifications *jalur pendidikan sekolah* (school education sector) and *jalur pendidikan luar sekolah* (non-school education sector) have been overhauled using three new terms, namely *jalur pendidikan formal* (formal education sector); *jalur pendidikan nonformal* (non-formal education sector); and *jalur pendidikan informal* (informal education sector). It seems that the term “formal education” was chosen to replace “school education” and the terms “non-formal education” and “informal education” were adopted to replace “non-school education”.

Apparently the old terms were felt to be no longer adequate to describe the various units of education that needed to be grouped under them. The term “school education sector” was felt inadequate to include such units of education as madrasah, colleges, and universities. Similarly the term “non-school education sector” was felt inadequate to keep up with the rapid development of those units of education formerly categorised simply as “non-schools”. The redefinition implies the state’s recognition of the dynamics and complexity of education and educational institutions in Indonesia today.

The internal and curricular structures as well as the extent of governmental and social involvement in various units of education seemed to be the reasons behind the introduction of the three “new” terms in *UU Sisdiknas 2003*. The formal education sector is defined as consisting of units of education that are characterised by structures and levels and consist of basic education, secondary education, and tertiary education. The non-formal education sector is defined as the domain of units education that provide substitutional, additional and/or supplementary education in order to support the life-long learning efforts of members.
of society. Like formal education, non-formal education has structures and levels as well, but it is conducted outside formal educational institutions. The Informal education sector refers to any informal and independent educational activity or service conducted by families and communities. It is different from the other sectors of education as it does not have structures or levels. The definitions are in line, more or less, with those offered by Smith (1996, p. 1), summarising the points made by Coombs and Ahmed (1974, pp. 8–9), as follows:

**Formal education:** the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded 'education system', running from primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialised programmes and institutions for full-time technical and professional training.

**Informal education:** the truly lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment - from family and neighbours, from work and play, from the market place, the library and the mass media.

**Non-formal education:** any organised educational activity outside the established formal system - whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity - that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives.

(Smith, 1996, p. 1)

As it transpires in the descriptions in the following sections, the teachers who participated in the present study were officially involved in the formal education sector, and not in the non-formal or informal sectors. This is based on the fact that they were working in their official capacity as EL teachers in units of education described by the definitions given above as formal education. Therefore, if the reformed Indonesian national education system is the general contextual background of the study, the formal education sector is the specific one. The ensuing sections on formal education in Indonesia describe what this sector constitutes in terms of the structural reforms stipulated by *UU Sisdiknas 2003*.

As stated earlier, based on Point 11 of Article 1 of *UU Sisdiknas 2003* (SSRI, 2003) and elaborated in Point 6 of Article 1 of *PP 17/2010* (SSRI, 2010), the formal education sector is a structured and graded sector of education. It consists of three levels of education, namely basic education, secondary education, and tertiary education. ECE offered in kindergartens is also recognised as part of formal education.

Formal education is the largest education sector in Indonesia. Based on 2007/2008 data, Indonesia has over 3.5 million students in kindergartens, around 41 million in primary schools, around 7.5 million in senior high school, and 4.5 million in universities (Firman & Tola, 2008, pp. 71-72; MNERI, 2008, pp. 5,8,10). The country has 400,000 kindergarten
teachers, 2.5 million primary (and junior high) school teachers, around 655,000 senior high school teachers, and over 300,000 lecturers. In terms of units of education, Indonesia has over 82,000 kindergartens, around 205,000 primary schools (including junior high schools), more than 22,000 senior high schools, and over 800 tertiary institutions (MNERI, 2008, pp. 5,8,10).

The three levels of the formal education sector are described in the following sections based on their general descriptions, curricula (if available), EL teaching, and EL educators.

4.1 Basic Education

Basic education is part of the formal education sector. One may pursue education in one of the following units of basic education according to their interest and capability:

- *sekolah dasar* (SD) [general primary schools];
- *madrasah ibtidaiyah* (MI) [Islamic primary schools];
- *sekolah dasar luar biasa* (SDLB) [special primary schools]; or
- equivalent units of basic education,\(^{25}\)
  - and
- *sekolah menengah pertama* (SMP) [general junior high schools];
- *madrasah tsanawiyah* (MTs) [Islamic junior high schools];
- *sekolah menengah pertama luar biasa* (SMPLB) [special junior high schools]; or
- equivalent junior secondary units of education\(^{26}\).

*UU Sisdiknas 2003* stipulates that basic education be provided in primary and junior secondary units of education. More information about these is described in the following sections.

4.1.1 Primary Schools

These are for children aged 6–7 up to 12–13 years old who, for six years, attend one of the primary schools or equivalent primary units of education mentioned earlier. Non-religion-based primary schools (i.e. SD/SDLB) are all under the direct administration of regional

\(^{25}\) Other units of education that are equivalent to SD/MI include religion-based *Pendidikan Diniyah Dasar, Sekolah Dasar Teologi Kristen, Adi Vidyayala, Culla Sekha*, and non-religion-based *Paket A* (in the non-formal education sector) (Additional explanations to PP No.17/2010, SSRI, 2010, p. 64).

\(^{26}\) Other units of education that are equivalent to SMP/MTs include religion-based *Pendidikan Diniyah Menengah, Sekolah Menengah Pertama Teologi Kristen, Madyama Vidyayala, Majjhima Sekha*, and non-religion-based *Paket B* (in the non-formal education sector) (Additional explanations to PP No.17/2010, SSRI, 2010, p. 64).
governments\textsuperscript{27}, while MIs and other religion-based primary units of education are under the direct administration of the Ministry of Religious Affairs. Students at this level are equivalent to students in Australia’s primary school years 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. However, instead of the Indonesian word \textit{tahun} (year), the word \textit{kelas} (class) is used to refer to the students’ grade. Therefore, students attending a year-5 class in the system, for instance, are called \textit{siswa kelas lima} (class five students).

The primary school curricula consist of 8 core subjects\textsuperscript{28}, 1 local content subject\textsuperscript{29}, and 1 personal development program\textsuperscript{30}, and at SDLB in particular there is an additional special program. These curricula do not include EL\textsuperscript{31}. To fill the gap, many schools teach EL as a “local content subject” in years 4, 5, and 6. It is taught for the duration of 70 minutes a week\textsuperscript{32} in SD/MI. (It is not known whether EL is also taught as a local content subject in SDLB.) This policy has been in place in many parts of Indonesia since 1993, as it is based on a number of official decrees at the national and provincial levels (Suyanto, 2004, p. 2).

That EL is not in SD/MI/SDLB curriculum means that it is treated as an optional, rather than a compulsory, subject. To teach the subject, many schools assign their own teachers (usually with a \textit{PNS} status\textsuperscript{33}) who teach the other subjects as well, and some schools hire casual/part-time EL teachers\textsuperscript{34} who teach EL only.

Some of the teachers informed me that they were not sure whether full-time primary school teachers who taught EL in their towns were qualified to teach it because they were not graduates of ELT training programs. The recently recruited \textit{PNS}-status teachers in primary schools are graduates of \textit{PGSD} at teacher training institutions such as Faculty of Education

\textsuperscript{27} Due to decentralisation, regional governments are responsible only for teacher recruitment and employment of principals, teachers, and school staff, as well as the day-to-day running of schools in their respective districts or municipalities.
\textsuperscript{28} Core subjects are compulsory subjects, the main components of the curriculum; ones that must be taught to the students.
\textsuperscript{29} A ‘local content subject’ is meant to teach students the knowledge and skills in relation to the local uniqueness or potentials. Each school has the prerogative to choose or design their own local content subject.
\textsuperscript{30} A ‘personal development program’ is not a subject that a teacher is expected to teach. It is a program that allows a student “to develop and express himself/herself based on his or her needs, talent, and interest” as outlined in the attachment to \textit{Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional Nomor 22 Tahun 2006 tentang Standar Isi} (Minister’s Regulation No.22 Year 2006 on Content Standards, abbreviated as and referred to in this chapter as \textit{Permendiknas No.22/2006} (MNERI, 2006a, p. 8).
\textsuperscript{31} Attachment to \textit{Permendiknas No.22/2006} (MNERI, 2006a, p. 8).
\textsuperscript{32} Some schools, however, defy this and introduce English from year 1 (or higher) onwards.
\textsuperscript{33} Teachers with a \textit{PNS} status are full-time, regional government-employees assigned in public and private units of education (kindergartens/schools/madrasahs). Although their salaries might be comparatively low, \textit{PNS}-status teachers hold their jobs for life, receive monthly salaries, and other benefits, and are guaranteed a pension. It is very competitive to gain the status and candidates must take a selection test. To improve their chances, many aspiring, non-\textit{PNS}-status teachers are willing to work for a school for months or even years and receive a little monthly pay called \textit{honor} (honorarium) from the school or local education office. These teachers are called \textit{guru honorer} (honorary teachers) and are usually prioritised for employment in \textit{PNS}-teacher recruitment.
\textsuperscript{34} Many casual/part-time English teachers are recent graduates of English teacher training institutions.
Studies at UNM. As far as English is concerned, participants of PGSD today are required to pass two compulsory English courses, i.e. *General English Language* and *English Language for Elementary School*, during their undergraduate training (W. K. Achmad, personal communication, 26 April 2011). As each of these two courses runs for 100 minutes per week for a total of up to 16 weeks, PGSD students are required to spend more than 53 hours studying English in order to obtain their diploma or degree. This background is usually considered adequate for the graduates to teach EL in primary schools.

The casual/part-time EL teachers may be more qualified because, as the teachers said, most of them graduated from ELT training or English literature programs, and might have gained more experience from teaching in schools and private English courses. However, many primary schools (particularly the public ones) would not be able to employ full time EL teachers unless the local Education Office recruits them through an official selection. For the time being, there are no such chances because EL is not included in the primary school curriculum, and the local education office would not recruit a teacher whose subject is not in the curriculum (M. Sutan, personal communication, 6 May 2011). Ironically, the teaching of EL in primary schools in many cases, especially in places where it is taught as a “compulsory local content subject”, has been based on the demands from students’ parents and/or instruction from the local Education Office (Suyanto, 2004, p. 3).

### 4.1.2 Junior Secondary Schools

In the second group of basic education students are children aged 12 or early teenagers aged 13 up to 15 years old attending junior high schools. Public and private SMP and SMPLB are all under the administration of regional governments, while public and private MTs and other religion-based primary units of education are under the administration of the Ministry of Religious Affairs. Students at this level are equivalent to Australian high school years 7, 8, and 9 students, except that, in Indonesian, they are called students of kelas tujuh (class 7), kelas delapan (8) and kelas sembilan (9), respectively.

In general, the curricula of the junior secondary units of education in Indonesia consist of 10 core subjects, 1 local content subject, and 1 personal development program, and an additional special program in SMPLB. Because this is the level at which the EL is officially introduced, one of the core subjects in the curriculum is EL. It is taught in years 7, 8, and 9.

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35 English Language lecturer at UNM’s PGSD.
36 Recruitment of teachers is conducted by the local Badan Kepegawaian Daerah (BKD) [Civil Service Employment Agency] in each district and municipality based on a needs assessment by the local Education Office.
37 Official at the Education Office of the City of Padang, West Sumatra.
and in each class it is taught for a total duration of 160 minutes a week in SMP/MTs and 90 minutes in SMPLB.

Unlike in primary schools, EL teachers in junior high schools (particularly the public ones) generally have proper ELT qualifications, being graduates of a four-year, undergraduate ELT training or English literature program. Both public and private junior high schools usually employ full-time EL teachers, mainly with a PNS status. The local governments usually recruit many EL teachers during official selections of PNS-status teachers and assign the successful applicants to teach in public schools. Some of them are assigned to teach in private schools that are in need of EL teachers.

4.2 Secondary Education

In the formal education sector, secondary education may be pursued in one of the following units of education:

- sekolah menengah atas (SMA [general senior high schools]);
- madrasah aliyah (MA [Islamic senior high schools]);
- sekolah menengah atas luar biasa (SMALB) [special senior high school for education];
- sekolah menengah kejuruan (SMK) [vocational senior high schools];
- madrasah aliyah kejuruan (MAK) [Islamic vocational senior high schools];
- sekolah menengah kejuruan luar biasa (SMKLB) [special vocational senior high schools];
- an equivalent general senior secondary unit of education.\(^{38}\)

In general, the curricula of secondary units of education in Indonesia consist of 16, 13, and 10 core subjects, depending on the types of education and the years the students are in. The 16 core subjects are in year 10 of SMA/MA, the 13 core subjects are in years 11 and 12 of SMA/MA, and the 10 core subjects are in SMK/MAK and SMALB. Nevertheless, each curriculum has 1 local content subject and 1 personal development program, and in SMALB’s curriculum there is an additional special program.

One of the core subjects in the various curricula mentioned above is EL, which is taught in years 10, 11, and 12. In each class it is taught for a total duration of 160 minutes a week in SMA/MA,\(^{39}\) 180 minutes in SMK/MAK, and 90 minutes in SMALB.

\(^{38}\) Other units of education that are equivalent to SMA/MA include religion-based Pendidikan Diniyah Menengah Atas, Sekolah Menengah Teologi Kristen, Sekolah Menengah Agama Kristen, Utama Vidyayala, Mahasekha, and non-religion-based Paket C (in the non-formal education sector) (Additional explanations to PP No.17/2010, SSRI, 2010, p. 65).

\(^{39}\) Except in the Languages Program of SMA/MA in which it is taught for a total of 200 minutes a week.
EL teachers in senior high schools (particularly the public ones) generally have proper ELT qualifications, as they graduated from a four-year, undergraduate ELT training or English literature program. Both public and private senior high schools (general and vocational) usually employ full-time EL teachers, sometimes with a PNS status. The local governments usually recruit many EL teachers during official selections of PNS-status teachers and assign the successful candidates to teach in public senior high schools, as well as in private senior high schools that are in need of EL teachers.

4.3 Tertiary Education
Tertiary education is considered as the context of this study, albeit indirectly. This is because the formal education sector includes tertiary education, and the teachers obtained their teaching qualifications from tertiary institutions. It would be difficult to discuss the teachers’ backgrounds without providing a brief description of the level of education where they obtained their academic qualifications.

Tertiary institutions provide the highest level of education in the formal education sector. As stated previously in section 2 (Levels of Education), tertiary education is a continuation from secondary education, and comprises educational programs for ahli or sarjana sains terapan (diploma holders)^40, sarjana (bachelor), magister (master’s), spesialis (specialist), and doktor (doctorate) qualifications (SSRI, 1999). The diploma qualifications are referred to according to the number of years they are completed, i.e. D1, D2, D3, and D4. The bachelor’s degrees are all called Strata Satu (S1) [Strata One], master’s degrees are Strata Dua (S2) [Strata Two], and doctorate degrees are Strata Tiga (S3) [Strata Three].

In accordance with Point 1 of Article 3 of PP 60/1999, Indonesian tertiary education is characterised by tertiary teaching, research, and community services (SSRI, 1999). These activities are known as Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi (Three Domains of Higher Education).

Based on the additional explanations of UU Sisdiknas 2003 (SSRI, 2003, pp. 28-29), tertiary education is provided in the following units of education:

a. Akademi (academies), offering vocational education in one or a part of the branch of science, technology, and/or art;

b. Politeknik (polytechnics), offering vocational education in a number of specified fields of study;

c. Sekolah tinggi (colleges), offering academic and/or vocational education within one discipline, and, if eligible, may conduct professional education as well;

^40 Holders of a 1-year, 2-year, and 3-year diploma are given the titles Ahli Pratama, Ahli Muda, and Ahli Madya, respectively. Holders of a 4-year diploma obtain the Sarjana Sains Terapan (Bachelor of Applied Science) title (SSRI, 1999, p. 4).
d. *institut* (institute), providing academic and/or vocational education in a group of disciplines of science, technology and/or art, and, if eligible, may also offer professional education;

e. *Universitas* (universities), where students receive academic and/or tertiary vocational education in a number of disciplines of science, technology, and/or art. If eligible, universities may also offer professional education.

The administration of academic activities in Indonesian tertiary institutions, according to *PP 60/1999* (SSRI, 1999), is based on the *Sistem Kredit Semester (SKS)* [Semester Credit System] in which each subject carries 1, 2, 3, or 4 *satuan kredit semester (sks)* [semester credit units]\(^{41}\). In this system, each *sks* translates to a 50 minute-long face-to-face contact (lecture), a 50 minute-long structured activity, and a 50 minute-long independent activity each week.

Each week in the system is a part of 16 effective weeks in a semester, which is part of an academic year of two semesters. An academic year commences at the beginning of *semester ganjil* ‘odd semester’, i.e. semesters 1, 3, 5, and 7) around July-August. The semester ends a few weeks before the beginning of *semester genap* ‘even semester’, i.e. semesters 2, 4, 6, and 8) around January-February the following year.

In non-English major undergraduate programs, English is taught as a *Mata Kuliah Umum (MKU)* [Compulsory General Subject] of 2 *sks*, in two consecutive semesters of the first academic year. In terms of face-to-face contact, this means that a student spends 100 minutes in an English lecture a week. That is, a total of more than 26 hours of English lectures in one semester. In certain departments/faculties, there is an optional, 2 *sks* English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course, in addition to English as *MKU*. In both cases mentioned in the above section, an English lecturer from an English-major program (e.g. English Department), or a specialist English lecturer employed full-time by the non-English-major faculty, department or study program, is usually assigned with the teaching task (M. A. Rasyid,\(^{42}\) personal communication, 29 April 2011).

In four-year, undergraduate tertiary programs where students engage in ELT, English linguistics and/or English literature studies, English is taught as a major. For the duration of up to 8 semesters, students in these institutions are required to complete a total of approximately 154 *sks*. For instance, an English skill subject such as *Reading 1* is worth 2 *sks*, meaning that students must attend a lecture for up to 100 minutes a week and do the structured and independent activities (assignments). The total number of credits (154) means

\(^{41}\) A distinction is made between *sks* (in lower case), which refers to the units, and *SKS* (in upper case), which refers to the system governing the application of *sks*.

\(^{42}\) Professor of ELT, English Department, Faculty of Languages and Literatures, UNM.
that students must spend a total of 7,700 hours, 80% of which (approximately 6,160 hours) is for studying English or English-related courses (A. Talib, personal communication, 29 April 2011). That is, over 16 hours of English learning a week over four years.

For postgraduate studies, English is taught only in master’s degree programs but not in doctorate programs. In master’s degree programs, it is taught as a compulsory subject for 100 minutes a week in the first semester. However, it is taught as a zero credit (0 sks) course usually by a senior lecturer from the English Department of the university’s faculty of languages or literatures (N.V. Liando, personal communication, 30 April 2011).

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43 Head of English Department, Faculty of Languages and Literatures, UNM.
44 Lecturer in the postgraduate degree programs in Universitas Negeri Manado, Manado, North Sulawesi.
Appendix 6


The Indonesian Government and the Minister of National Education (currently Minister of Education and Culture) have issued regulations and decrees on the implementation of PSG since the year 2007. They are, among other things:

1. Ministerial Regulation No. 16 Year 2007 on Teachers’ Academic Qualifications and Competency Standards (Permendiknas 16/2007 SKAKG) (MNERI, 2007). This regulation is referred to as SKAKG 2007 in this thesis.

2. Government Regulation No. 74 Year 2008 on Teachers (PP 74/2008 Guru) (SSRI, 2008). This regulation is referred to as PP Guru 74/2008 in this thesis.

3. Ministerial Regulation No. 10 Year 2009 on In-Service Teacher Certification (Permendiknas 10/2009 PSG) (MNERI, 2009d). This regulation is referred to as Permendiknas 10/2009 PSG in this thesis. This regulation was revised in 2011, and it is referred to in this thesis as Permendiknas 11/2011 PSG.


Appendix 7

NBPTS English as a New Language Standards

(Adapted from NBPTS, 2010, pp. 19-95)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Knowledge of Students</td>
<td>Apply their knowledge of students’ language development, cultures, abilities, values, interests, and aspirations to facilitate their students’ linguistic, academic, and social growth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Understanding and appreciating the diversity of English language learners;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Understanding diverse families;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Understanding the role of prior educational experiences;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Viewing students as resources;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e. Forming constructive relationships with students;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>f. Observing diverse students insightfully;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>g. Working successfully with students with exceptional needs and talents;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h. Creating instructional tasks that respond to both the commonalities and differences among learners;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>i. Reflecting on English language learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Knowledge of Culture and Diversity</td>
<td>Model and build respect and appreciation for cultural diversity, demonstrating to their students and others that students can succeed academically while maintaining their cultural identities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Knowledge and understanding of culture and diversity;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Culturally responsive learning environments;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Student advocacy;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Reflection;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Home, School, and Community Connections</td>
<td>Establish and maintain partnerships with their students' families and communities to enhance educational experiences for their students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Communication with families;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Connection between home and school;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Connections with school community;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Connections with the community;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e. Reflection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Knowledge of the English Language</td>
<td>Have in-depth knowledge of the English language and understand their students’ language needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Domains of language: Listening, speaking, reading, writing, visual literacy;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Components of language: Phonology, vocabulary, grammar, discourse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Variations in language use: Social English language, academic English language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Reflection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Knowledge of English</td>
<td>Critically evaluate the ways in which students acquire primary and new languages and apply this knowledge to promote their students’ success in learning English.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Language Acquisition | a. Language exposure;  
b. Language awareness;  
c. Interaction and practice;  
d. Interdependence of language and content;  
e. Interdependence of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and visual literacy;  
f. Explicit instruction;  
g. Instructional feedback;  
h. Language transfer;  
i. Educational background  
j. Culture and sociolinguistic variables;  
k. Age and length of time in the United States;  
l. Motivation;  
m. Other factors affecting language development;  
n. Myths and misconceptions about English language acquisition;  
o. Reflection |
|----------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| 6. Instructional Practice | Design supportive learning environments based on careful analysis of their students’ characteristics and on the linguistic and academic demands of school; provide effective language and content instruction that expands students’ linguistic repertoire in English, allows them to achieve academic success, and inspires them to acquire skills that will serve them throughout their lives.  
a. Preparing for effective instruction: (1) Integrating language and content; (2) Building on students’ prior knowledge, experiences, and interests; (3) Selecting materials and resources; (4) Teaching collaboratively; (5) Managing learning in the classroom;  
b. Providing effective Instruction: (1) Differentiating instruction in the language domains [listening, speaking, reading, writing, visual literacy]; (2) Engaging and motivating learners; (3) Providing students with focused language instruction; (4) Thinking critically; Individualizing instruction; (5) Using the primary language as a tool; (6) Interacting in the classroom;  
c. Encouraging students to become independent learners;  
d. Incorporating assessment;  
e. Reflection. |
| 7. Assessment | Employ a variety of practices to assess their students appropriately; use assessment results to shape instruction, to monitor student learning, to assist students in reflecting on their own progress, and to report student progress.  
a. Variety in assessment techniques;  
b. Initial placement assessment;  
c. Assessment to guide instructional practice: (1) Assessment of student progress in the language domains [listening, speaking, reading, writing, visual literacy]; (2) Substantive feedback to students;  
d. Student self-assessment;  
e. English language proficiency assessment;  
f. Standardized content assessment;  
g. Assessment for special purposes;  
h. Substantive assessment information for families and others;  
i. Reflection. |
|   | Teacher as Learner | Are passionate about their field and consistently engage in the process of professional growth; thoughtfully evaluate their learning and apply it in their practice to maximise student success.  
|   |   | a. Professional growth and development;  
|   |   | b. Reflection.  
|   | Professional Leadership and Advocacy | Contribute to the professional learning of their colleagues and the advancement of knowledge in their field in order to advocate for their students.  
|   |   | a. Collaborating with colleagues to improve student learning;  
|   |   | b. Advocating for English language learners;  
|   |   | c. Preparing for the future;  
|   |   | d. Contributing to the advancement of the profession;  
|   |   | e. Reflection. |
Appendix 8

Examples of Standards of the Ontario College of Teachers’ Standards of Practice and Ethical Standards

(Adapted from OCT, 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>The Standards of Practice for the Teaching Profession</th>
<th>The Ethical Standards for the Teaching Profession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1         | **Commitment to Students and Student Learning:**  
• Dedicated in care and commitment to students;  
• Treat students equitably with respect and sensitivity;  
• Facilitate students’ development as contributing citizens of Canadian society. | **Care:**  
• Compassion, acceptance, interest and insight for developing students' potential;  
• Committed to students' well-being and learning through positive influence, professional judgment and empathy in practice. |
| 2         | **Professional Knowledge:**  
• Strive to be current in their professional knowledge and recognize its relationship to practice;  
• Understand and reflect on student development, learning theory, pedagogy, curriculum, ethics, educational research and related policies and legislation to inform professional judgment in practice. | **Respect:**  
• Trust and fair-mindedness;  
• Honour human dignity, emotional wellness and cognitive development;  
• Model respect for spiritual and cultural values, social justice, confidentiality, freedom, democracy and the environment. |
| 3         | **Professional Practice:**  
• Apply professional knowledge and experience to promote student learning;  
• Use appropriate pedagogy, assessment and evaluation, resources, and technology in planning for and responding to the needs of individual students and learning communities;  
• Refine their professional practice through ongoing inquiry, dialogue and reflection. | **Trust:**  
• Fairness, openness and honesty;  
• Professional relationships with students, colleagues, parents, guardians and the public are based on trust. |
| 4         | **Leadership in Learning Communities**  
• Promote and participate collaborative, safe, and supportive learning communities;  
• Recognise their shared responsibilities and leadership roles in facilitating student | **Integrity:**  
• Honesty, reliability and moral action are embodied in the ethical standard of *Integrity*;  
• Continual reflection assists members in exercising integrity in their professional commitments and |
|   | success;  
|   | • Maintain and uphold principles of ethical standards in learning communities.  
|   | responsibilities.  
| 5 | **Ongoing Professional Learning:**  
|   | • Recognise their commitment to ongoing professional learning is integral to effective practice and student learning;  
|   | • Professional practice and self-directed learning are informed by experience, research collaboration and knowledge. |
Appendix 9

Quality Teacher Status (QTS) Standards Applied in the UK

(Adapted from Ross and Hutchings (2003, pp. 47–48))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Teaching qualification achieved through undergraduate or postgraduate training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Registration</td>
<td>Registered with the appropriate GTC in each of the four constituent countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Clearance</td>
<td>Checks against criminal records</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Standard 1: Professional Values and Practice</td>
<td>The attitudes and commitment to be expected of anyone qualifying to be a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard 2: Knowledge and Understanding</td>
<td>Requiring newly qualified teachers to be confident and authoritative in the subjects they teach, and to have a clear understanding of how all pupils should progress and what teachers should expect them to achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard 3: Teaching</td>
<td>Skills of planning, monitoring and assessment, and teaching and classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Tests to pass</td>
<td>Numeracy, literacy and ICT (These do not apply in Wales.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Eligibility</td>
<td>New teachers completing initial teacher training course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Graduates with teaching experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Applicable to</td>
<td>All teachers, including those in maintained and non-maintained special schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Non-applicable to</td>
<td>Teachers in the private sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>It is possible for teachers to gain employment without QTS in state schools. (This does not apply in Scotland where teachers must be fully registered before applying for permanent teaching posts.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Examples of NSW Institute of Teachers’ Generic Professional Teaching Standards

(Adapted from NSWIT, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Key Stages: Graduate Teacher, Professional Competence, Professional Accomplishment, and Professional Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional Knowledge</td>
<td>Teachers know their subject and how to teach that content to their students.</td>
<td>Four aspects e.g. 1st aspect: Knowledge of subject content</td>
<td>e.g. 1.1.1. Graduate Teacher: Demonstrate relevant knowledge of the central concepts, modes of enquiry and structure of the content/discipline(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional Practice</td>
<td>Teachers know their students and how they learn.</td>
<td>Five aspects e.g. 2nd aspect: Knowledge of the physical, social and intellectual developmental characteristics of the age group(s) of students</td>
<td>e.g. 2.2.2. Professional Competence: Apply knowledge of the typical stages of students’ physical, social and intellectual development as well as an awareness of exceptions to general patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers plan, assess and report for effective learning.</td>
<td>Nine aspects e.g. 3rd aspect: Selection and organisation of content</td>
<td>e.g. 3.3.3. Professional Accomplishment: Assist colleagues to apply high-level theoretical and practical knowledge of teaching and learning practices to organise subject content in logical and structured ways as appropriate to learning goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers communicate effectively with their students.</td>
<td>Three aspects e.g. 1st aspect: Effective communication and classroom discussion</td>
<td>e.g. 4.4.3. Professional Leadership: Model exemplary discussion techniques for colleagues and assist them to develop their own skills and knowledge in this area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers create and maintain</td>
<td>Five aspects e.g. 5th aspect:</td>
<td>e.g. 5.1.7. Graduate Teacher: Understand specific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional Commitment</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><strong>6.</strong> Teachers continually improve their professional knowledge and practice.</td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td>Assure the safety of students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>safe and challenging learning environments through the use of classroom management skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td>requirements for ensuring safety in schools.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Three aspects e.g. 2nd aspect: Engagement in personal and collegial professional development</td>
<td></td>
<td>e.g. 6.2.2. Professional Competence: Use the professional standards to identify personal professional development needs and plan accordingly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Teachers are actively engaged members of their profession and the wider community.</td>
<td>Four aspects e.g. 4th aspect: Professional ethics and conduct</td>
<td>e.g. 7.4.6. Professional Leadership: Take a leadership role in presenting a positive image of the school in all communication and interactions with parents, caregivers, colleagues, industry and the local community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 11

**ACTA Subject-specific Professional Teaching Standards**

(Adapted from ACTA, 2006, p. 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation…</th>
<th>Domains: Dispositions, Understandings and Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| to a multicultural society | DISPOSITIONS: *Accomplished TESOL teachers*…
| | • espouse the values of cultural inclusivity, multiculturalism, multilingualism, reconciliation and countering racism;
| | • are familiar with and can critique existing provisions, policies, and curriculum and assessment frameworks;
| | • respond to and incorporate students’ experiences and aspirations by developing appropriate educational provisions.
| | UNDERSTANDINGS: *Accomplished TESOL teachers*…
| | • identify the features and understand the implications of multi-cultural Australian society;
| | • are familiar with and can critique existing provisions, policies, and curriculum and assessment frameworks;
| | • understand how students’ experiences, knowledge and prior learning shape their present learning and development.
| | SKILLS: *Accomplished TESOL teachers*…
| | • advocate for and create a positive environment for cultural diversity, inclusive practice and English language learning;
| | • identify issues or concerns in current provisions and work collaboratively within the educational setting and wider community to address them;
| | • respond to and incorporate students’ experiences and aspirations by developing appropriate educational provisions.
| to second language acquisition | DISPOSITIONS: *Accomplished TESOL teachers*…
| | • appreciate the pivotal role of language and culture in learning, teaching and socialisation;
| | • are informed by coherent theories of language and culture, and the acquisition of English as an additional language;
| | • are sensitive to student learning needs and interests in relation to language and culture.
| | UNDERSTANDINGS: *Accomplished TESOL teachers*…
| | • appreciate the pivotal role of language and culture in learning, teaching and socialisation.
| | • understand the linguistic, cultural and contextual factors and processes involved in the development of English as an additional language.
| | • appropriately select and sequence language and culture content to provide for and critique meaning-making in diverse texts and contexts.
| | SKILLS: *Accomplished TESOL teachers*…
| | • identify achievable outcomes for the development of English as an additional language relevant to socialisation and learning;
| | • design courses and activities to teach and assess relevant features of the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>to TESOL practice</th>
<th>DISPOSITIONS: Accomplished TESOL teachers...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>commit to reflective practice and program evaluation that is responsive to students’ linguistic and cultural history and environment;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>value diverse and relevant methodologies, resources, technologies and classroom investigation;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are sensitive to the opportunities and limitations of the particular learning and teaching environment, including students’ English language proficiencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDERSTANDINGS: Accomplished TESOL teachers...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>understand the complexity of the linguistic and cultural relationship between colleagues, students, teachers, community and curriculum;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>know a range of teaching and assessment practices and resources, and can evaluate them in terms of the context;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>know how to adapt teaching to respond to features of the learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKILLS: Accomplished TESOL teachers...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>commit to reflective practice and program evaluation that is responsive to students’ linguistic and cultural history and environment;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>know a range of teaching and assessment practices and resources, and can evaluate them in terms of the context;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scaffold students’ learning and English language development through appropriate classroom interaction, negotiation, teaching strategies, activities, materials and assessment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### New Zealand Teachers Council's Registered Teachers Criteria

(NZTC, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS AND PROFESSIONAL VALUES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully registered teachers engage in appropriate professional relationships and demonstrate commitment to professional values.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Establish and maintain effective professional relationships focused on the learning and well-being of all ākonga (all learners).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Demonstrate commitment to promoting the well-being of all ākonga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Demonstrate commitment to bicultural partnership in Aotearoa New Zealand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Demonstrate commitment to ongoing professional learning and development of personal professional practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Show leadership that contributes to effective teaching and learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE IN PRACTICE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully registered teachers make use of their professional knowledge and understanding to build a stimulating, challenging and supportive learning environment that promotes learning and success for all ākonga.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Conceptualise, plan and implement an appropriate learning programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Promote a collaborative, inclusive and supportive learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Demonstrate in practice their knowledge and understanding of how ākonga learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Respond effectively to the diverse language and cultural experiences, and the varied strengths, interests and needs of individuals and groups of ākonga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Work effectively within the bicultural context of Aotearoa New Zealand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Analyse and appropriately use assessment information, which has been gathered formally and informally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Use critical inquiry and problem-solving effectively in their professional practice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

45 Each criterion is elaborated into key indicators, but these are not covered here due to the limited space.

46 As noted in the original document, ākonga refers to all learners in the full range of settings, from early childhood to secondary and beyond, where the Registered Teacher Criteria apply.
Appendix 13

TESOLANZ Professional Standards Project: Profile of the TESOL Profession

(Adapted from Haddock, 1998b)

From the study, a picture of the ESOL professional in New Zealand emerges as someone who:

• teaches in a secondary school or polytechnic;
• is female and 47 years old;
• has ESOL qualifications of a Dip SLT (Massey), RSA Cambridge CELTA, MA Applied Linguistics, Dip TESOL, Cert TESOL or Dip TESOL (Victoria);
• has a BA or MA;
• has general teaching qualifications of a Dip Tchg, Dip Ed, Dip Secondary Tchg;
• has taught ESOL for 9.6 years, has taught in other sectors for 8.6 years;
• has a part-time job;
• does not speak a community language but has had language learning experience and feels that it was an extremely useful experience;
• continues professional development through TESOLANZ, Journal Subscriptions, courses and conferences;
• obtains employer support through payment of conference fees, paid leave, papers paid for, payment of course fees.
### Appendix 14

**TESOLANZ Professional Competency Standards**

(Adapted from Haddock, 1998a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Should have: (QUALIFICATIONS)</th>
<th>Should understand: (KNOWLEDGE)</th>
<th>Should: (SKILLS)</th>
<th>Use:</th>
<th>Provide:</th>
<th>Ensure:</th>
<th>Should recognise the significance of: (DISPOSITIONS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TESOL education &amp; training;</td>
<td>The broader principles of teaching and learning;</td>
<td>Accommodate varying levels and abilities;</td>
<td>A language level appropriate to the student's ability;</td>
<td>A balanced programme;</td>
<td>Students know what they are doing and why;</td>
<td>Behaving in a non-racist, non-sexist and professional manner;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ongoing professional development;</td>
<td>The process of second language development;</td>
<td>Facilitate independent learning;</td>
<td>A variety of teaching strategies;</td>
<td>Appropriate models of language in context;</td>
<td>Assessment is valid and understandable by the student and stakeholders.</td>
<td>A classroom environment conducive to learning;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications in TESOL;</td>
<td>Current TESOL methodological approaches;</td>
<td>Assess and use appropriate resources;</td>
<td>Both formal and informal methods of assessment techniques;</td>
<td>Constructive and sensitive feedback to facilitate learning (in relation to assessment).</td>
<td>Teacher-student rapport;</td>
<td>Contribution to Profession Development programmes when possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience learning another language.</td>
<td>The main phonological and structural features of English;</td>
<td>Carry out a needs analysis;</td>
<td>A range of functions to enable students to participate in New Zealand society.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factors and conditions affecting language learning;</td>
<td>Select and use a range of TESOL methodologies;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Different learning styles;</td>
<td>Monitor learner progress;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiculturalism;</td>
<td>Select and apply a range of second language assessment;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principles behind materials development and selection;</td>
<td>Develop suitable assessment tasks for the level and goals of the group;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The impact of L1 on language teaching;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principles of TESOL course design and curriculum development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 15

UNE School of Arts’ Head of School’s Letter

JS:HD

28 April 2009

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby confirm Mr Chairil Anwar KOROMPOT is a PhD Student (ID Number 220043138) Discipline: Indonesian in the School of Arts at the University of New England. Mr KOROMPOT will be involved in Field Work in Indonesia for his PhD Research from 1/5/09 to 5/12/09.

If you need any further information please do not hesitate to contact me by email on artshos@une.edu.au or by telephone on the above numbers.

Yours sincerely

[Handwritten Signature]

Professor Jennie Shaw
Head
School of Arts
# Appendix 16

**Teacher Respondents' Biodata Sheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>a. Name</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Pseudonym</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>a. S1 qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. S2 qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. S3 qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Other qualification(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Position at school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>a. Teaching/training responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. How long?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Non-teaching/training responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. How long?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>a. Are you a member of an ELT professional organization?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. How long?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>a. Participation in teacher certification program(s)</td>
<td>Preparing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Certification program (to be) undertaken</td>
<td>Portfolio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Key Informants' Biodata Sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>c. Name</th>
<th>d. Pseudonym</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>e. S1 qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f. S2 qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>g. S3 qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>h. Other qualification(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Position at institution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>e. Teaching/training responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f. How long?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>g. Non-teaching/training responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>h. How long?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 18

Information Statement for Participants

INFORMATION STATEMENT for PARTICIPANTS

Research Project:

Giving Teachers Their Voices: A Study of Indonesian English Language Teachers’ Perspectives on Professional Standards in the Context of In-Service Teacher Certification Programs in Indonesia

I wish to invite you to participate in my research on the above topic. The details of the study follow and I hope you will consider being involved. I am conducting this research project for my PhD at the University of New England in Armidale, NSW, Australia.

My supervisors are Dr. Zifirdaus Adnan and Dr. Elizabeth Ellis of the University of New England. Dr. Adnan can be contacted by email at zadnan@pobox.une.edu.au or by phone on +61-2-6773 3516, and Dr. Ellis can be contacted at liz.ellis@une.edu.au or by phone on +61-2-6773 3639.

Aim of the Study:
The study aims to examine whether the assumptions in the literature on language teacher cognition theory concerning aspects of language classroom instruction, and the assumptions in professional-standards-related literature about English language (EL) teaching, are supported by data gathered from the Indonesian EFL context, and whether the findings can justify the development of a new set of EL professional standards.

Time Requirements:
I am asking for approximately 60-90 minutes of your time for the interview, and 90-120 minutes for the focus group discussion (for EL teachers only), if you are invited to it. All of these will be carried out at my expense.

Methodology:
In the interview, you will be given a series of open-ended questions that allow you to explore your views and practices related to your work as an EL teacher. This interview will be audio-recorded.

You may be invited to participate in a focus group discussion with other participants at a later date to discuss the findings of the data collection. This discussion will also be audio-recorded or electronically captured. Participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the project at any time and there will be no disadvantage if you decide not to participate or withdraw at any time.
The completed consent forms, the audio recording of the interviews and focus group discussions will be kept in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher’s office until and while they are processed or transcribed or analysed, and then they will be destroyed. The transcriptions will be kept in the same manner for five years following thesis submission and then destroyed.

**Research Process:**
It is anticipated that this research will be completed by the end of December 2011. The results may be presented at conferences and/or written up in journals without any identifying information.

This project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of New England (Approval No. HE09, Valid to 01/05/2010).

Should you have any complaints concerning the manner in which this research is conducted, please contact the Research Ethics Officer at the following address:

Research Services  
University of New England  
Armidale, NSW 2351.  
Telephone: (02) 6773 3449 Facsimile (02) 6773 3543  
Email: ethics@une.edu.au

Thank you for considering this request and I look forward to further contact with you.

Regards,

Chairil Anwar Korompot

Home phone number: 0411-8112016  
Office phone number: 0411-888840  
Mobile phone number: 081355822421  
E-mail address: ckorompo@une.edu.au
Appendix 19

Consent Form for Participants

I, ........................................................................................................., have read the information contained in the Information Sheet for Participants and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

Yes/No

I agree to participate in this activity, realising that I may withdraw at any time.

Yes/No

I agree that data gathered for the study may be published using a pseudonym.

Yes/No

I agree to the interview being audiotape recorded and transcribed.

Yes/No

………………………………………..  ………………………………..
Participant    Date

………………………………………..  ………………………………..
Researcher    Date
Appendix 20

Ethics Approval from Human Research Ethics Committee
University of New England

MEMORANDUM TO:
Dr Z Adnan, Dr L Ellis & Mr C Koronioti
School of Behavioural, Cognitive & Social Science

This is to advise you that the Human Research Ethics Committee has approved the following:

PROJECT TITLE: Giving teachers their voices; A study of Indonesian English language teachers’ perspectives of professional standards in the context of in-service teacher certification programs in Indonesia.

COMMENCEMENT DATE: 01/05/2009
COMMITTEE APPROVAL No.: HED9/086
APPROVAL VALID TO: 01/05/2010
COMMENTS: N.B. Conditions met in full.

The Human Research Ethics Committee may grant approval for up to a maximum of three years. For approval periods greater than 12 months, researchers are required to submit an application for renewal at each twelve-month period. All researchers are required to submit a Final Report at the completion of their project. The Progress/Final Report Form is available at the following web address: http://www.une.edu.au/research-services/ethics/human-ethics/forms.php.

The NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans requires that researchers must report immediately to the Human Research Ethics Committee anything that might affect ethical acceptance of the protocol. This includes adverse reactions of participants, proposed changes in the protocol, and any other unforeseen events that might affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

In issuing this approval number, it is required that all data and consent forms are stored in a secure location for a minimum period of five years. These documents may be required for compliance audit processes during that time. If the location at which data and documentation are retained is changed within that five year period, the Research Ethics Officer should be advised of the new location.

Jo-Ann Szczu
Secretary
01/05/2009
Appendix 21

Research Permit from Makassar Education Office
Appendix 22

Research Permit from Padang Education Office

IZIN PENELITIAN

Kepala Dinas Pendidikan Kota Padang berdasarkan surat University of New England tanggal 6 Agustus 2009, perihal izin penelitian. Pada prinsipnya dapat memberikan izin untuk melaksanakan penelitian tersebut kepada:

Nama / NIP: Chairil Anwar Korompot, S.Pd. MA / 19700513 200501 1 002
Program Studi: School of Arts
Judul: Giving Teachers Their Voices: A study of Indonesian English Language Teachers Perspectives of Professional Standards in The Context of In-service Teacher Certification Programs in Indonesia.
Lokasi: SD, SMP dan SMA dan SMK Kota Padang

Dengan ketentuan:
2. Setelah selesai melaksanakan pengumpulan data penelitian agar memberikan laporan satu rangkap ke Dinas Pendidikan Kota Padang UP. Bidang Program dan Kajian Peningkatan Mutu Pendidikan.

Demikianlah untuk dapat dipergunakan sebagaimana mestinya.

Padang, Agustus 2009,
An. Kepala,
Kasi Peningkatan Pengawasan Mutu
Tenaga Pendidik dan Kependidikan.

Anfadli Azhar, SE. M.Pd
NIP. 131689833.

Tembusan:
2. Bapak Walikota Padang (Sebagai laporan).
3. University of New England
4. Kepala SD, SMP SMK, Kota Padang.
5. Yang bersangkutan.
Appendix 23

Research Permit from Malang Education Office

PEMERINTAH KOTA MALANG
DINAS PENDIDIKAN
Jl. Veteran No. 19 Telp. (0341) 551333-560946-584499
MALANG

REKOMENDASI
Nomor : 070 / T 57 / 35.73.307 / 2009

Menunjuk Surat dari Dekan Fakultas Bahasa dan Sastra Universitas Negeri Makassar, tanggal 10 September 2009 Nomor : Perihal : Permohonan Ijin Penelitian, maka dengan ini kami berikan izin untuk melaksanakan kegiatan dimaksud kepada:

1. Nama : CHAIRIL ANWAR, S.Pd,MA
2. NIM : 19700513 200501 1 002
3. Pekerjaan : Dosen Jurusan Bahasa Inggris
4. Unit Organisasi : Universitas Negeri Makassar
5. Tempat : SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA, SMK Negeri se Kota Malang
6. Waktu / Jamanya : Oktober s/d Desember 2009
7. Judul : "Giving Teachers Their Voices : A Study of Indonesian English Language Teachers' Perspectives of Professional Teaching Standards in the Context of In- Service Teacher Sertification Programs in Indonesia"

Dengan ketentuan:

1. Dikoordinasikan sebaik-baiknya dengan Kepala Sekolah ybs
2. Tidak mengganggu proses belajar-mengajar
3. Berlaku selama tidak menyimpang dari peraturan
4. Selesaikan melaksanakan Penelitian / Observasi / KKL / KKN, wajib menyampaikan laporan kepada Kepala Dinas Pendidikan Kota Malang

Demikian untuk dilaksanakan sebagaimana mestinya.

Malang,

KEPALA DINAS PENDIDIKAN
KOTA MALANG

Dr. H. SHOFWAN, S.H., M.Si
Pembina Utama Muda
NIP. 19580415 198403 1 012

Tembusan disampaikan kepada yth.:

1. Dekan Fakultas Bahasa dan Sastra Universitas Negeri Makassar
2. Kepala SD/MI, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA, SMK Negeri se Kota Malang
3.
### List of Semi-structured Interview Questions for Teacher-Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are the qualities of a good teacher of any subject? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What are the qualities of a good EL teacher? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Many people say that teaching is a profession and teachers are professionals. Do you agree? Why/why not? What about EL teaching and EL teachers? Why/why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Some people say that in order to teach a subject such as EL, the teacher needs to have specific knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Do you agree? Why/why not?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 5   | a. What essential knowledge is required of an EL teacher? Why?  
    b. What essential skills are required of an EL teacher? Why?  
    c. What essential dispositions are required of an EL teacher? Why? |
| 6   | In some developed countries, statements on teachers’ knowledge, skills and dispositions (such as the ones you just mentioned) have been used in developing professional standards for teachers (show interviewees standards documents, e.g. NBPTS, TESOLANZ). Do you think we should do the same here in Indonesia for our EL teachers? Why/why not? |
| 7   | In some countries, professional standards for EL teachers have been developed and used for:  
    a. fostering student success through effective EL teaching;  
    b. conducting professional development and self-reflection;  
    c. giving direction to the curricula of EL teacher education and teacher training programs;  
    d. establishing hiring criteria for evaluating EL teaching candidates;  
    e. assessing EL teacher performance.  
Do you think we can use professional teaching standards for the same purposes in Indonesia? Why/Why not? Are there any other purposes you can think of? Why? |
| 8   | In some parts of the world, professional EL teaching standards are used for certifying EL teachers. Should the certification of Indonesian EL teachers be based on professional EL teaching standards? Why/why not? |
| 9   | What do you think about the SKAKG (show a copy of Permendiknas No. 16/2007), especially regarding EL teachers? Is there anything lacking? What should be added or removed? Why? |
| 10  | Besides having the minimum qualification of S1/D4, what should Indonesian EL teachers be required to have to be recruited/certified? Why? (What about language proficiency, length of service, teaching experience, etc?) |
| 11  | If we were to develop a professional standards document for Indonesian EL teachers, who should be involved in the process? (Or Whose responsibility is it?) Why? |
| 12  | There are three important stages in teaching, i.e. planning, instructing, and assessing.  
    a. What knowledge, skills, or dispositions should Indonesian EL teachers have in terms of planning?  
    b. What knowledge, skills, or dispositions should Indonesian EL teachers have in terms of instructing?  
    c. What knowledge, skills, or dispositions should Indonesian EL teachers have in terms of assessing? |
We have talked about Planning, Instructing, and Assessing as well as what knowledge, skills and dispositions EL teachers should have regarding the three stages of teaching. Are there any other areas or aspects to be included? Why?

Do you think the above ideas (including your own) can be contributed to developing professional teaching standards for Indonesian EL teachers in the future? Why/why not?

When you’re teaching the 4 components, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing, what do you focus on?

Thank you for your time.
**Appendix 25**

**List of Semi-structured Interview Questions**

*for Key Informants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>You’ve been involved in EL teacher education/certification/teacher training for a long/some time. Are you satisfied with the quality of the student-teachers/teachers/teacher-trainees you’ve had so far? Why and/or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Apart from the quality of EL student-teachers/teachers/teacher-trainees, what do you think are the strengths of the program you’re involved in? Are there any weaknesses? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Many people say that teaching is a profession. Do you agree? Why/why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Some people say that in order to teach a subject such as EL, a teacher needs to have specific knowledge, skills, and dispositions (characteristics). Do you agree? Why/why not?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 5   | a. What essential knowledge is required of an EL teacher? Why?  
   b. What essential skills are required of an EL teacher? Why?  
   c. What essential dispositions are required of an EL teacher? Why? |
| 6   | Are you familiar with professional standards (or standards for the profession)? What are they? |
| 7   | In some countries, professional standards for EL teachers have been used for:  
f. fostering student success through effective EL teaching;  
g. conducting professional development and self-reflection;  
h. giving direction to the curricula of EL teacher education and teacher training programs;  
i. establishing hiring criteria for evaluating EL teaching candidates;  
j. assessing EL teacher performance.  
Do you think we can use professional standards for the same purposes in Indonesia? Why/Why not?  
Are there any other purposes you can think of? Why? |
<p>| 8   | In some developed countries, statements on teachers’ knowledge, skills and dispositions (such as the ones you just mentioned) have been used in developing professional standards for teachers (show interviewees standards documents, e.g. NBPTS, TESOLANZ). Do you think we should do the same here in Indonesia for our EL teachers? Why/why not? |
| 9   | Should teacher certification programs (<em>Portfolio &amp; PPG</em>) be based on professional standards? Why/why not? |
| 10  | In other countries, teacher certification is based on detailed professional standards. What do you think about this? (Show interviewee Permendiknas No.16 of 2007 on <em>SKAKG.</em>) Why? |
| 11  | If we were to develop a professional standards document for Indonesian EL teachers, who should be involved in the process? (Or Whose responsibility is it?) Why? |
| 12  | Some people say that in the future, teacher certification programs (<em>Portfolio &amp; PPG</em>) should be subject-specific and based on subject-specific professional standards. Do you agree? Why/why not? |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Do you think that given their backgrounds and experiences the teachers here are capable of articulating statements that may be developed into professional standards? Why/why not?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Can we use teachers’ perspectives of professional standards in designing subject-specific certification programs (<em>Portfolio &amp; PPG</em>)? Why/why not?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your time.
Example of Interview Notes  
(from Teacher Interviews)

---

**TEACHER INTERVIEW NOTES**  
**Location: MALANG**

Interviewee\(^7\):  
Date/Time:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are the qualities of a good teacher of any subject? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What are the qualities of a good EL teacher? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Many people say that teaching is a profession and teachers are professionals. Do you agree? Why/why not? What about EL teaching and EL teachers? Why/why not?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Some people say that in order to teach a subject such as EL, the teacher needs to have specific knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Do you agree? Why/why not?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>d. What essential knowledge is required of an EL teacher? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>e. What essential skills are required of an EL teacher? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>f. What essential dispositions are required of an EL teacher? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In some developed countries, statements on teachers’ knowledge, skills and dispositions (such as the ones you just mentioned) have been used in developing professional standards for teachers (show interviewees standards documents, e.g. NBPTS, TESOLANZ). Do you think we should do the same here in Indonesia for our EL teachers? Why/why not?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>In some countries, professional standards for EL teachers have been developed and used for: k. fostering student success through effective EL teaching; l. conducting professional development and self-reflection; m. giving direction to the curricula of EL teacher education and teacher training programs; n. establishing hiring criteria for evaluating EL teaching candidates; o. assessing EL teacher performance. Do you think we can use professional teaching standards for the same purposes in Indonesia? Why/why not? Are there any other purposes you can think of? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{7}\) Pseudonym

---

475
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>In some parts of the world, professional EL teaching standards are used for certifying EL teachers. Should the certification of Indonesian EL teachers be based on professional EL teaching standards? Why/why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>What do you think about the SKAKG (show a copy of Permendiknas No. 16/2007), especially regarding EL teachers? Is there anything lacking? What should be added or removed? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Besides having the minimum qualification of <em>S1/D4</em>, what should Indonesian EL teachers be required to have to be recruited/certified? Why? (What about language proficiency, length of service, teaching experience, etc?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>If we were to develop a professional standards document for Indonesian EL teachers, who should be involved in the process? (Or Whose responsibility is it?) Why?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 12   | There are three important stages in teaching, i.e. Planning, Instructing, and Assessing.  
   d. What knowledge, skills, or dispositions should Indonesian EL teachers have in terms of Planning?  
   e. What knowledge, skills, or dispositions should Indonesian EL teachers have in terms of Instructing?  
   f. What knowledge, skills, or dispositions should Indonesian EL teachers have in terms of Assessing? |
| 13   | We have talked about Planning, Instructing, and Assessing as well as what knowledge, skills and dispositions EL teachers should have regarding the three stages of teaching. Are there any other areas or aspects to be included? Why? |
| 14   | Do you think the above ideas (including your own) can be contributed to developing professional teaching standards for Indonesian EL teachers in the future? Why/why not? |
| 15   | When you’re teaching the 4 components (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), what do you focus on? |

Thank you for your time.
Appendix 27

English Language Teachers Professional Teaching Standards
(Based on Various International Professional Teaching Standards Documents, Including SKAKG 2007)

A. Qualifications
A1. ELT Qualifications and Training
   A1.1. TESOL/ELT qualifications
   A1.2. TESOL/ELT training
A2. Experience
   A2.1. Experience in TESOL
   A2.2. Experience in learning a community (another) language
A3. Membership in ELT Organisations
A4. Continuous Professional Development

B. Competencies
B1. Knowledge
   B1.1. Students and their background
   B1.2. Students’ culture and diversity
      B1.2.2. Student advocacy
   B1.3. The English language: Its domains, components, and variations in use
      B1.3.1. Social EL
      B1.3.2. Academic EL
   B1.4. English language curriculum/syllabus
   B1.5. English language in cultural context
   B1.6. Expectations from “outsiders”
   B1.7. English language acquisition
      B1.7.1. Linguistic factors
      B1.7.2. Psychological factors
      B1.7.3. Instructional factors
      B1.7.4. External factors
      B1.7.5. Other factors (e.g. students’ educational background)
   B1.8. The context of ELT and learning
      B1.8.1. Theory, practice, and research
      B1.8.2. Learning aspects
      B1.8.3. Teaching aspects
      B1.8.4. Policies in relation to TESOL/ELT
         B1.8.4.1. Government policies affecting TESOL/ELT
         B1.8.4.2. Government practice affecting TESOL/ELT
         B1.8.4.3. Government policies affecting access to and equity in TESOL/ELT
         B1.8.4.4. Ability to critique existing policies, provisions, curriculum, assessment framework.
   B1.9. ELT methodology
   B1.10. ELT curriculum and materials

B2. Skills
   B2.1. ELT Instructional practice
      B2.1.1. Lesson planning
      B2.1.2. Recognition of prior learning
B2.1.3. Connecting EL to other subjects

B2.2. ELT classroom instruction

B2.2.1. Providing effective instruction
B2.2.2. Engaging and motivating students
B2.2.3. Providing students with EL instruction
B2.2.4. Students’ critical thinking
B2.2.5. Individualising instruction
B2.2.6. Using the target language
B2.2.7. Classroom interaction
B2.2.8. Collaboration with colleagues
B2.2.9. Management of learning
B2.2.10. Teacher-student rapport
B2.2.11. Independent learning
B2.2.12. Teaching strategies
B2.2.13. EL learning atmosphere
B2.2.14. Accommodating students’ background and levels and abilities
B2.2.15. EL acquisition
B2.2.16. Contextualising EL learning

B2.2.16.3. Making homework meaningful and useful for students
B2.2.17. Providing EL models to students
B2.2.18. Providing feedback
B2.2.19. Appropriate ELT methodology
B2.2.20. Cultural (cross-cultural factors)
B2.2.21. Adapting to students’ needs and interest
B2.2.22. Adapting to students’ learning styles
B2.2.23. Using resources, media, and technology
B2.2.24. Using students’ L1
B2.2.25. Being aware of EL learning theories
B2.2.26. Monitoring learning progress
B2.2.27. Ensuring help is available
B2.2.28. Class dynamics
B2.2.29. Classroom management
B2.2.30. Administrative responsibilities
B2.2.31. Freedom of expression and respect

B2.3. Assessment and Evaluation:

B2.3.1. Using a range of EL assessment techniques

B2.3.1.1. Visual literacy
B2.3.2. Using information from assessment to guide instructional approaches
B2.3.3. Using teacher’s own assessment
B2.3.4. Using assessment to improve student learning
B2.3.5. Making assessment relevant to the curriculum and tests
B2.3.6. Evaluation

B2.3.6.1. Involving students in evaluating teaching/learning.

B3. Dispositions

B3.1. Being inclusive and non-discriminatory
B3.2. Being sensitive to students’ background, needs and interests in relation to EL

B3.2.1. Showing positive attitudes to EL
B3.3. Being open-minded
B3.4. Being reflective of teaching and students’ EL learning experience
B3.5. Being resourceful
B3.6. Being involved in professional development
B3.7. Personal aspects
   B3.7.1. Conduct based on religious, legal, social, and cultural norms
   B3.7.2. Have a noble character and be role models for students and community
   B3.7.3. Have a solid, stable, mature, wise, and charismatic personality
B3.8. Collaborating with colleagues in improving students’ learning
B3.9. Having a balanced life
B3.10. Being capable of professional leadership and advocacy
   B3.10.1. Advocating for EL students
B3.11. Having connections with students’ families, school community, and the larger community.
### Summary of the Selected Findings of the Scoping Study on the Development of Teaching Standards in the Broader Asia-Pacific Region

**Country: Indonesia**

(Adapted from Department of Education, Employment, and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), 2008b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Level of education required to be appointed as a school teacher</th>
<th>Additional criteria required to qualify for teacher training certificate</th>
<th>Frequency of teaching certificate registration renewal</th>
<th>Mandatory content required in teacher training</th>
<th>Proposed changes to future teacher qualification requirements</th>
<th>Current status of teacher standards</th>
<th>Use of standards</th>
<th>Standards applying to Mathematics and Science</th>
<th>Planned development of teacher standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>• Completed teacher training qualification&lt;br&gt;• Five year qualification</td>
<td>One year professional training</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Pedagogy, Professional, Personality, Social course</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Pedagogy, professional, personal, social</td>
<td>Informing teacher training and teacher practice, teacher promotion, curriculum design.</td>
<td>Same as the standard for all other qualifications and competencies</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>Teacher self assessment, principal assessment, inspections</td>
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<td>Government</td>
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<td>If not written standards, how</td>
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<td>Strategy for teacher promotion or pay increment</td>
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### Basic Educational Genres and Their Sub-genres

(Adapted from Derewianka, 2003, p. 137)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Purpose</th>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Sub-Types</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘To provide information about a particular person, place or thing’</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Objective Description</td>
<td>‘My Family’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Literary Description</td>
<td>‘The Old Banyan Tree’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘To provide information about a class of things’</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Descriptive Report</td>
<td>‘The Rainforest’</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Report</td>
<td>Taxonomic Report</td>
<td>‘Different Types of Planes’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>--Class/subclass</td>
<td>‘The Parts of a Clock’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>--Part/whole</td>
<td>‘Bats and Birds’</td>
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<td>Compare/contrast Report</td>
<td>‘Dinosaurs’</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘To tell someone how to do something’</td>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>Instructions</td>
<td>‘Making Nasi Goreng’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>‘Changing Solids to Liquids’</td>
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<td>Directions</td>
<td>‘How to Get to Main St’</td>
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<td>Regulations</td>
<td>‘Our Class Rules’</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘To tell what happened’</td>
<td>Recount</td>
<td>Personal Recount</td>
<td>‘My Holiday in Macau’</td>
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<td>Factual Recount</td>
<td>‘Theft Steals Car’</td>
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<td>Biographical Recount</td>
<td>‘The Life of Gandhi’</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Autobiographical Recount</td>
<td>‘My Childhood’</td>
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<td>Historical Recount</td>
<td>‘The Qin Dynasty’</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘To explain how or why a phenomenon takes place’</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>Sequential Explanation</td>
<td>‘Life Cycle of a Frog’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Causal Explanation</td>
<td>‘Why Hot Air Rises’</td>
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<td>Factorial Explanation</td>
<td>‘The Causes of Erosion’</td>
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<td>Consequential Explanation</td>
<td>‘The Effects of Poverty’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>‘Why Dinosaurs Became Extinct’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘To explore the human condition through storying’</td>
<td>Story Genres</td>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>‘The Disappearing Dogs’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Moral Tale or Fable</td>
<td>‘The Fox and the Crow’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Anecdote</td>
<td>‘When I Went to the Dentist...’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘To respond to a literary text or artistic work’</td>
<td>Response Genre</td>
<td>Personal Response</td>
<td>‘My Favourite TV Show’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Review</td>
<td>‘Novel of the Year’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>‘Crouching Tiger as a Metaphor...’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Critical Response</td>
<td>‘Is Rap Really Subversive?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘To mount an argument’</td>
<td>Exposition</td>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>‘War is immoral’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Discussion/Debate</td>
<td>‘The Pros and Cons of Living Alone’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>